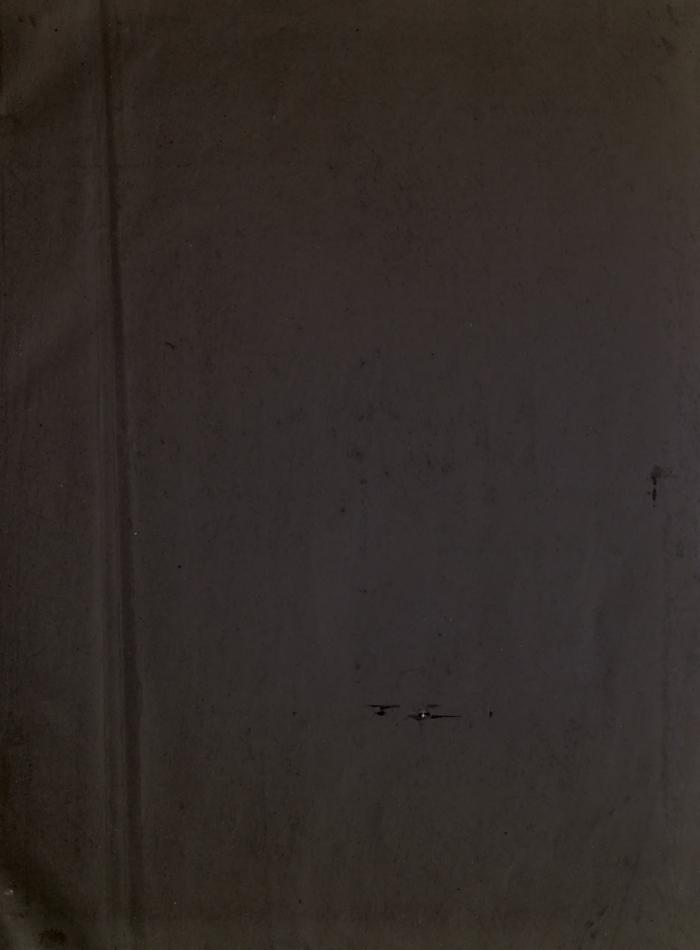
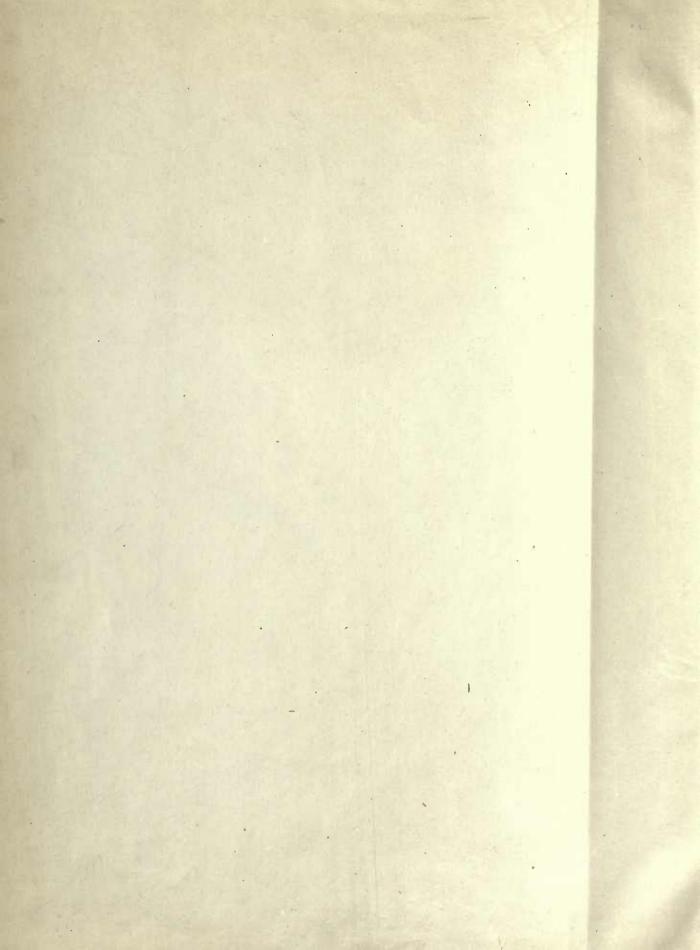




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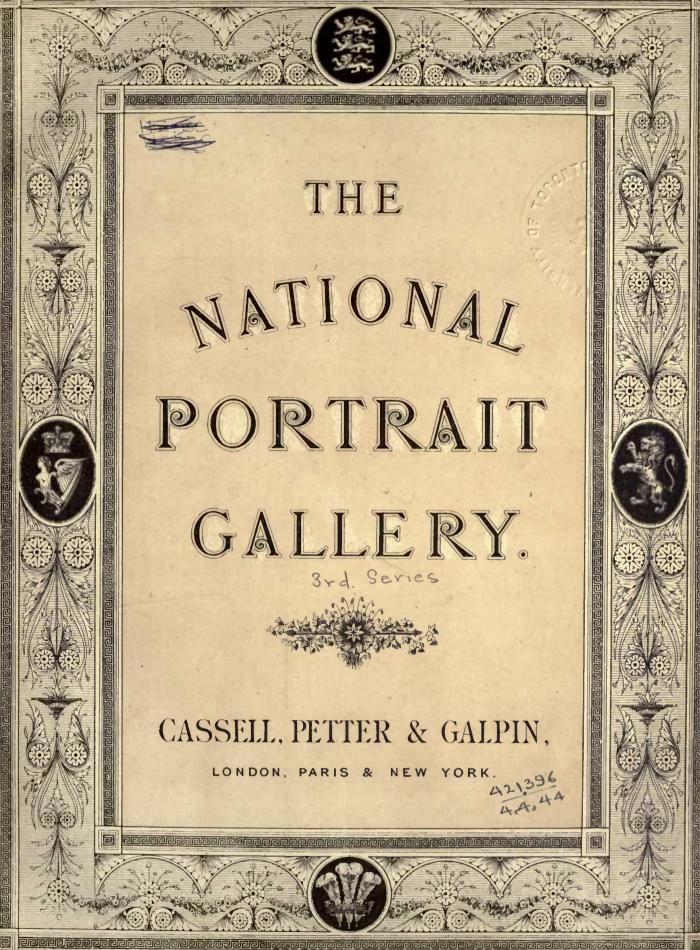








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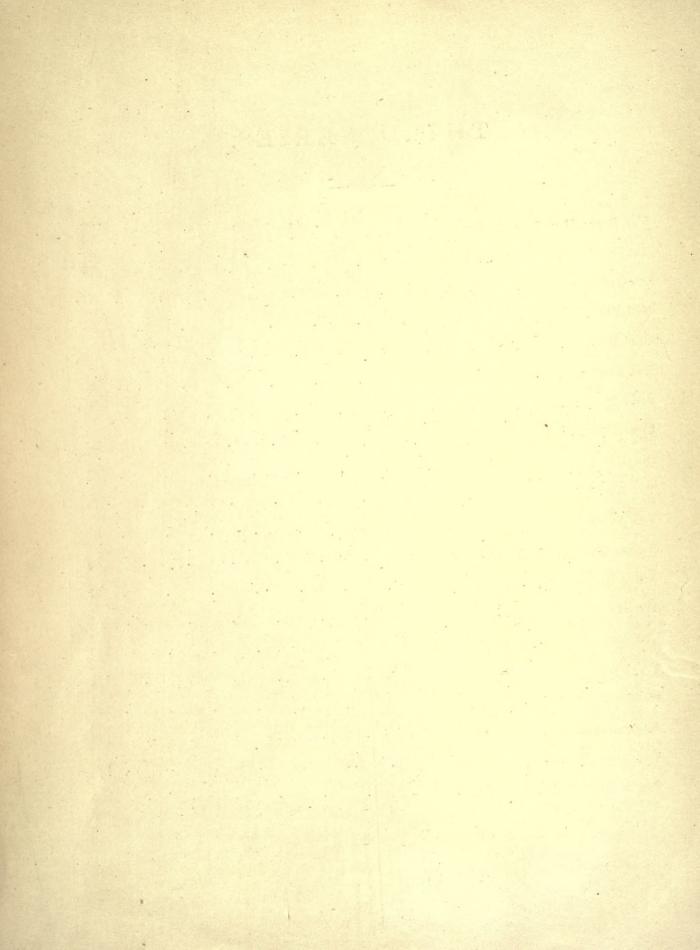
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THE RIGHT HON. LORD LYTTON.

To become Governor-General of the vast Indian possessions of the British Empire is the highest post to which an uncrowned head can aspire. It is the cordon bleu in the gift of the Prime Minister for the time being, and bespeaks, in no ordinary degree, the confidence of the Sovereign in the statesman or diplomatist upon whom it is conferred. Under any circumstances the appointment may be regarded with legitimate pride by the recipient of so honourable a distinction; but when the pinnacle has been reached at the early age of forty-four—as was the case with the nobleman who forms the subject of the present memoir—Lord Lytton may well be congratulated on his good fortune. So signal an instance of promotion has rarely been met with: a young and able diplomatist—bearing, it is true, a well-known and distinguished name—is suddenly transferred from the Court of Portugal, a position in the third rank of British representatives upon the Continent, to become the virtual ruler of some two hundred millions of souls. Though the announcement of the appointment created some surprise, it was a surprise of a pleasurable nature, and prominent men of the two great political parties concurred in warmly congratulating the new Viceroy.

Lord Lytton is the son of one who, for nearly half a century, took rank amongst the central figures of English literature. The author of "The Caxtons," rejoicing in his own great literary success, had a cosmopolitan heart; and it would have been strange, seeing the interest he exhibited in other literary men, if he had not ardently welcomed the developing genius of his own son. He beheld in him, not only one in whom was reproduced very largely his own outward lineaments, but a similarity of mind and tastes; though the son scarcely possesses that originality (except as regards his poetry) which made Edward Lytton Bulwer-Lytton the widely-known essayist, orator, dramatist, and statesman. Could the latter have lived, however, to witness his son attain an elevation to which he himself would scarcely venture to have aspired, we can well understand what would have been the nature of his feelings at this recognition, on the part of the Queen, of hereditary genius.

The Right Hon. Lord Lytton is the second holder of the title in the peerage, and is perhaps

more extensively known in the world of letters under his nom de plume of "Owen Meredith." He was born on the 8th of November, 1831, and, in order to imbue him with the same love of foreign literature (while not ignoring the English) which he himself cherished, the first Baron sent his son abroad to complete his education, and to add to his knowledge of the world and of the lore of modern Europe. Having first been to Harrow, Robert Lytton was subsequently sent to Bonn, on the Rhine, where he devoted himself to the study of the masterpieces in the Greek and Roman languages, at the same time also not neglecting the acquisition of modern German, French, and Italian. At a very early age-scarcely before he completed his eighteenth year, in fact—the young student signified the career to which he intended to devote himself, by entering the diplomatic service as private secretary to his uncle, Lord Dalling and Bulwer (then Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer). Sir Henry at this period occupied the important post of Minister Plenipotentiary for Great Britain to the United States, at Washington. The young diplomatist could not have chosen a better entry upon diplomatic life; and it would have been difficult for him to have discovered an abler or more experienced tutor in ambassadorial duties than his relative. The new aspirant acquitted himself so well in his post, and proved so apt a scholar in the ways of diplomacy, that Sir Henry Bulwer quickly discovered he might employ him on important service in connection with Anglo-American affairs. Nor was this all the advantage that the nephew reaped, for at that time the United States possessed two of the most eminent statesmen who have ever graced Transatlantic history-Henry Clay and Daniel Webster-and Robert Lytton was brought into constant contact with them. Eloquence is natural with the Bulwers, and we learn that while in New York this youngest of the race delivered a speech which made a marked impression upon all who heard it, including the veterans of American oratory.

From the post of Attaché at New York, Mr. Lytton was transferred, in three years, to Florence, where Sir Henry Bulwer became resident Minister. Leaving the latter city after a stay of two years, he was appointed to the same office in Paris; thence, as Paid Attaché, to the Hague, in 1856; but was promoted in 1858, first to St. Petersburg, and afterwards to Constantinople; whence his destination was changed to Vienna, on the eve of the war between France and Austria, before he had joined his post at either of the two above-mentioned capitals. This was a valuable and varied experience for one who had barely attained his twenty-seventh year; and it prepared the way for his signal success in a more important mission. His time of anxiety-and every diplomatist expects to encounter such periods-speedily commenced. In 1860—that is, when he was twenty-nine years of age—Mr. Lytton was acting Consul-General at Belgrade, and any one who remembers the condition of Turkish politics at that juncture, will know that no diplomatic post which involved relations with Turkey, or her principalities, or neighbouring states, could be a sinecure. Shortly after the last-named period the bombardment of Belgrade by the Turks took place, and Mr. Lytton, upon its conclusion, was dispatched to the city on a special mission. Our representative played the part of mediator so well upon this and another occasion, that he not only won the encomiums of those strangers amongst whom he was sent, but earned promotion from his own Government. In 1862, he was advanced to the position of Second Secretary in the diplomatic service, with which rank he took up his residence at Vienna. He who serves his country in any capacity, however, must be prepared for change; and accordingly we find that at the commencement of the year next to that of which we have been speaking (namely, 1863), Lord John Russell marked his appreciation of Mr. Lytton's services by appointing him Secretary of Legation to

Copenhagen. Here he found further cause for circumspection and diligence in his duty. Shortly after the happy marriage of the Prince of Wales to the Princess Alexandra, the daughter of King Christian, Europe was disturbed by the raising of a difficulty known as the Schleswig-Holstein question. We shall not, of course, discuss this question from a political point of view, and only refer to it for the purpose of noting Mr. Lytton's services during its continuance. Heated discussions took place upon the subject in our own House of Commons, and Mr. Lytton's despatches (he had now become chargé d'affaires at Copenhagen) were referred to approvingly on more than one oceasion during the debates by several of our leading statesmen. At the close of his Danish experiences, Mr. Lytton went, with considerable prestige now attaching to his name, to Athens, where King George had been recently established upon the throne; and to the young monarch the counsel and advice of an able English diplomatist could not fail to be of the greatest possible service during a period of expectancy and anxiety. Portugal was the next field wherein Mr. Lytton displayed his talents; and from April, 1865, till February, 1868, he acted as chargé d'affaires of the mission at Lisbon. To this succeeded the Secretaryship of Legation at Madrid, and in a few months the higher grade in the capacity of Secretary to the Embassy at Vienna. While in the Austrian capital, he made the acquaintance of most of the eminent statesmen of Europe, and he assisted those of Austria in the important work of perfecting the commercial treaty with this country. Then came Mr. Lytton's residence in Paris, where he was Secretary of the Embassy from October, 1872, to November, 1874. During this period (in 1873), England was deprived of the literary and other services of the first Lord Lytton: but his successor had become so acclimatised to the French capital, that he continued his duties there, notwithstanding his succession to the title and estates, including the magnificent ancestral home of Knebworth. There is little doubt that the numerous positions which he satisfactorily filled, but more especially the knowledge of diplomacy which he acquired in Paris, led Mr. Disraeli to single him out for the important office to which he was appointed. It caused some little surprise that Lord Lytton should not have enlightened the world on certain problems in modern polities upon which he must have as intimate a knowledge as any man; but his lordship has ever been diffident to the commission of any act which might give colour to the charge of meddlesomeness-the most deadly sin which could overtake the diplomatist. Two facts only remain to be mentioned in connection with his public life, before his appointment to the Viceroyalty. He was British Minister Plenipotentiary at Lisbon from 1874 till January, 1876; and he declined the post of Governor of Madras, which was offered to him on the death of Lord Hobart. That post the Duke of Buckingham subsequently accepted. Lord Lytton is connected by marriage with the Clarendon family, having, in 1864, espoused the second daughter of the Hon. E. Villiers, brother to the late Earl of Clarendon.

We who live so far from the scene of action can form no adequate conception of the responsibilities which attach to Her Majesty's representative in India. The position of Viceroy, however much we may be dazzled with the splendour of the title, can be no easy one to sustain, nor can its duties and obligations be perfunctorily performed. The weight of our Indian Empire is so great that the shoulders of any ruler need well be like to those of Atlas to support it. If the young nobleman who now fills the office be but as successful in his new sphere as he has invariably been during his career in Europe, both India and England will have abundant reason to be satisfied. When the appointment was first announced, the Saturday Review well remarked upon this head:—"Lord Lytton's appointment must rest exclusively on his personal merits. He may be expected to show in a very high degree the first set of qualities

He is sure to be courteous, able, and sympathetic; to discharge which his office demands. social duties gracefully; to please the world of officials and their wives; and to make people about him at their ease. Native kindliness and good sense are the foundation of all good manners; but Lord Lytton has improved nature by the cultivation of a poet and the training of a diplomatist. Whether he will show the second set of qualities needed in a Viceroy, whether he will display real power, and will be able to act under a Secretary of State with sufficient independence and sufficient obedience, and to impress a sense of mastery on those with whom he has to deal, cannot be known until he is tried. His published reports on the countries where he has been stationed have always displayed a power of grouping and stating facts which no one but an able man could possess. But it is impossible from the best of reports written by a Secretary of Legation to judge whether he is or is not fit to be a Viceroy of India. His fitness can only be judged by a personal insight into character. The real reason to suppose Lord Lytton fit is that Mr. Disraeli has thought him fit. Mr. Disraeli has gone out of his way to choose Lord Lytton, and it may be assumed that Mr. Disraeli has not gone out of his way without good grounds." The Times, speaking upon the same subject, made observations of a similar purport to those we have already expressed. In announcing the appointment, the leading journal said. "The choice of Lord Lytton as Lord Northbrook's successor is bold and striking. Few can have guessed at this appointment before it was made public; but still fewer, probably, will now question its fitness. Lord Lytton has his genius by inheritance; but he has had a training in public affairs which his accomplished father had not, and he is believed to possess administrative abilities in which his father was wanting. He possesses, but is not possessed by, a graceful poetic talent, which secures him the advantages of a cultivated and sympathetic imagination. but does not threaten to dominate his intellectual qualities. In the diplomatic service he has risen fast and far, and both his powers of work and his skill in affairs are recognised on the Continent no less than at home. As British Minister at Lisbon he has had little scope for eminent services. and his labours in the subordinate ranks of diplomacy at some of the great capitals are better known. His Reports have always been admirably clear and full, and his Minutes in Council. with which a Governor-General is bound to expound or defend his policy, will be penned by a master of literary style. Lord Lytton goes out to India in the prime of life, and at a period when the interest of Englishmen in Oriental politics is deepening rapidly. It is significant that an experienced and able diplomatist should be selected for the Indian Viceroyalty at a time when events seem once more to be connecting the interest of our Indian Empire with the great game of Continental policy." In this game, however, Lord Lytton is an adept, for the mysteries of European politics, which to most men are a sealed book, have been very largely mastered by Lord Northbrook's successor.

Upon looking back over the records of the history of British India during the past twenty years we are enabled clearly to perceive how great is the responsibility which devolves upon a Governor-General, and how grave is the nature of his duties. In 1857 England thrilled from one end to the other with the terrible story of the Indian Mutiny, a disaster which bore such sad fruit for many in the mother-country, whose relatives were exposed to danger in the far East, and many of whom perished under the diabolical hand of the assassin. And we thus say nothing of the minor troubles which are inevitably to be borne by the Viceroy, making his life far from one of even tolerable ease and comfort. After the ebullition of savagery on the part of the natives, to which we have referred, may be mentioned as another period prolific in extreme anxiety for the Queen's representative, that of the Famine, when, but for the foresight of Lord Lytton's predecessor, thousands might have

perished. These are times of the greatest moment, bringing with them to those who are responsible for the government of India anxious cares, and yet at the same time the necessity for prompt and vigorous action. Pusillanimity in such a crisis as either of the two indicated might some day cause the loss of our valuable dependency. But it must be remembered, when speaking of statesmen and administrators, that age does not necessarily bring wisdom, while the spectacle of Pitt being Prime Minister of England at the age of twenty-three will prevent us from casting doubt unnecessarily upon the wisdom of youth. Neither must it be supposed that a man with the temperament of a poet is unfitted for hard work in another direction. The father of Lord Lytton himself was a valuable instance in contradiction of this. Notwithstanding the devotion which he exhibited towards literature, he vet proved himself, by his administration of the duties of the Colonial Office, an able public servant, and one who brought to his task a capacity for hard work such as is rarely seen. Unquestionably his history as Colonial Minister reflected upon him great credit. Mr. Disraeli doubtless perceived in the son that which justified him in committing to him an even greater responsibility; and we in England, therefore, can only wait and judge by results. The prejudice against poets as business men is now dying out: it is beginning to be believed that, in the practical concerns of life, even a large development of the imaginative faculty is no hindrance to a successful man of action. Indeed, we might traverse the long roll of English literature, and discover many men eminent in letters, who have also been valuable servants of the people and the Sovereign. The position of Vicerov is one, of course, where the principal requisite, or at least a leading characteristic, must be the power of dealing with mankind. Firmness, and yet moderationsternness, and yet by alternations both justice and mercy—are the qualities which are required in him who is truly able to cope with the problems of statesmanship, the conflicting interests of race, and the rights of individuals, which will inevitably thrust themselves into his notice. Judging from what is already known of Lord Lytton's capabilities, the chances are strongly in his favour that the confidence in him as an administrator exhibited by Mr. Disraeli has not been misplaced.

We have hitherto spoken of his lordship as a diplomatist. It now remains for us to view him in that light in which he first became favourably known to the world—viz., as a man of letters, but principally as a poet. In this respect we may at once admit that his fancy and poetic temperament are superior to those of his father. The latter had more of classic grace, with which, indeed, much of his verse was overladen, but "Owen Meredith" showed a lightness, grace, and delicacy to which the first Lord Lytton could not lay claim. His first published work, issued in 1855, when its author was only twenty-four years of age, was entitled "Clytemnestra and other Poems." In his selection of subjects the young poet demonstrated what influence had been at work upon him; but the critics, nevertheless, were unanimous in praise of the work, and encouraged the then unknown author to proceed. There was perceived in the volume that devotion to nature which should ever mark the young poet, while in the diction there was not the riotous gracelessness which so frequently distinguishes the poetry of aspirants. His imagery, too, was good, and at times the thought was subtle. Here is one idea from the poem which gave its name to the volume:—

"As we move
Further and further down the path of fate
To the sure tomb, we yield up, one by one,
Our claims on Fortune; till, with each new year,
We seek less and go further to obtain it."

There is considerable merit, also, in "The Artist" and "The Earl's Return," but for pastoral

beauty the reader should turn to the "Good Night in the Porch." We unquestionably get, fine poetry here—poetry of the highest description of its kind. The painting is vivid, and the whole picture clearly revealed to the mind's eve. We perceive in such poems as this a simplicity which reminds us of Wordsworth, and a spontancity also which is quite refreshing, and full of promise. Having so well proved his title to the name of poet—though his number of readers was not so large as to justify us in describing him as a popular one-"Owen Mered th" rested upon his oars for a few years, and at length, in 1859, again appeared before the world with a volume entitled "The Wanderer." This collection of poems has nearly dropped out of recollection now, but it is well worthy of resuscitation. It is singular how some authors vault into the highest positions, while others of equal merit are doomed to only a very partial recognition at the hands of a small band of devoted admirers. In this sense literature is frequently only an urn into which the world drops its hand, and draws forth a chosen name, which is henceforth, beyond others, to be held in remembrance. The lack of recognition to any poet who really possesses the "faculty divine" must be a profound trial. for sensitiveness is sometimes wounded by it more keenly than by absolute injustice. Though "Owen Meredith" did not pass wholly without such recognition at the hands of the critics, the striking merits of his verse, and the lyrical power displayed in this second volume of his works. should have given his name a still wider appreciation. "The Wanderer," who furnishes the title to the leading poem, is one who has cruised in the Mediterranean, and traversed the lands of the sunny South, afterwards recording his impressions of the varied scenery and character he met with. There are several portraits of women strikingly drawn, glumpses of character or of personal appearance being occasionally touched off in a single line. Some of the love passages in the volume would suggest that they were drawn from personal experience; they show strength without morbidity, and passion without extravagance. There is little in the whole work that is not worthy of being extracted or remembered; but to show the author's power of writing a lyric, delicate and musical as those written by the poets of the sixteenth and seventcenth centuries, and cast somewhat in the same mould, let us take these stanzas:-

> "Quiet skies in quiet lakes, No wind wakes, All their beauty double: But a single pebble breaks Lake and sky to trouble: Then dissolves the foam it makes In a bubble. With the pebble in my hand, Here upon the brink I stand; Meanwhile, standing on the brink. Let me think. Not for her sake, but for mine. Let those eyes unquestioned shine, Half divine: Let no band disturb the rare Smoothness of that lustrous hair Anywhere: Let that white breast never break Its calm motion-sleep or wake-For my sake.

Not for her sake, but for mine,
All I might have I resign.
Should I glow
To the hue—the fragrance fine—
The mere first sight of the wine—
If I drained the goblet low?
Who can know?
With her beauty like the snow,
Let her go! Shall I repine
That no idle breath of mine
Melts it? No! 'tis better so.
All the same, as she came,
With her beauty like the snow,
Cold, unspotted, let her go!"

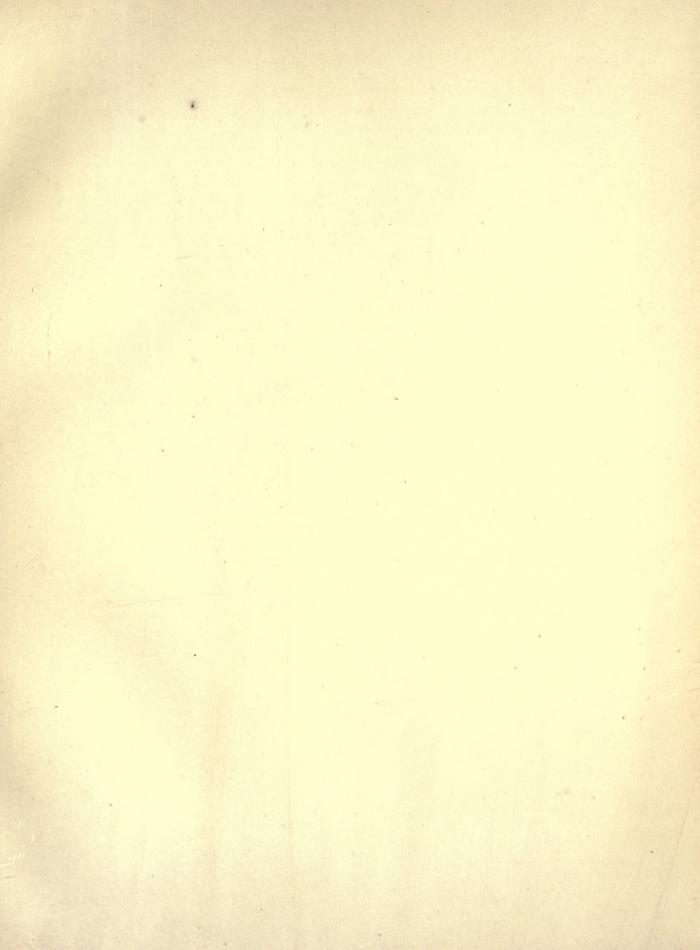
Poems of another and more stirring character were "Babylonia," "The Norse Gods," and "Rinaldo Rinaldi." All the promise at the first appearance of the poet, it may be said, was more than fulfilled by the publication of his second series of poems.

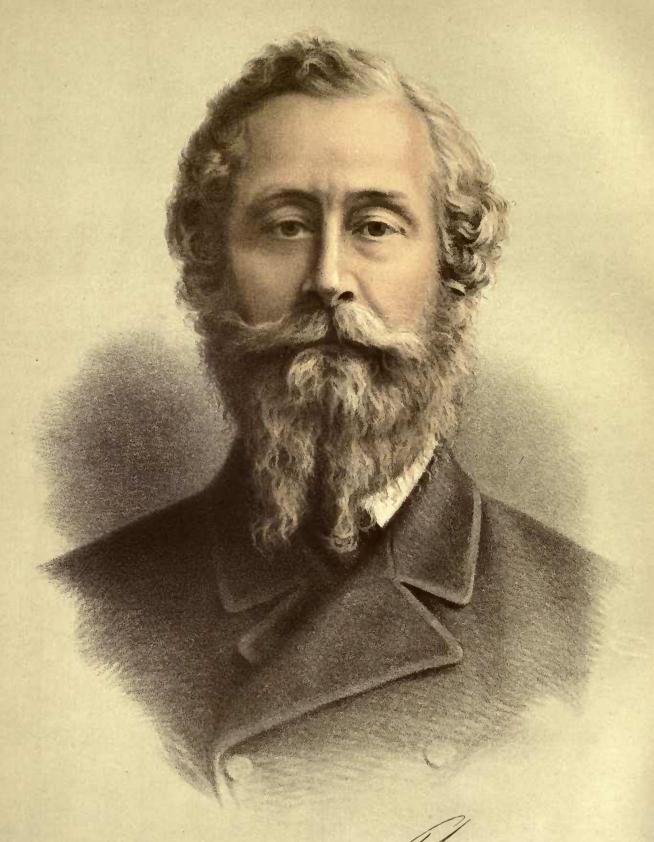
The novel in rhyme will always have a certain amount of success, of which poems of the imagination, or of simple unmixed human emotion, will be deprived. It is remarkable how even a fictitious hero or heroine has the power to move mankind; and as a proof of the inherent fondness of the individual for interesting himself in character, we need only reflect upon the enormous amount of novel-reading we have in England, compared with the bulk of that which is scientific or philosophical. There is something even in a badly-drawn character which moves us towards it; and that something is the semblance to humanity, however imperfect it may be. But this class of poems, together with the great majority of novels, has but an ephemeral existence—it fails to fix itself upon the world's mind. Mrs. Browning wrote "Aurora Leigh," a novel in verse, but her minor poems are much more widely known, even after this comparatively brief lapse of time, and as the years roll on we may expect their power over society to become stronger, while "Aurora Leigh" will probably continue to have fewer readers—notwithstanding its extraordinary merits—with each succeeding generation. The story, whether in verse or prose, has a temporary success, partly on account of its author, and partly on account of its plot; but it rarely gives the opportunity for uttering those brief, pregnant lines, whose wisdom or whose poetry makes them immortal. "Owen Meredith's 'Lucile,'" published in 1860, belonged to the class of works which we have been describing. Viewed as a story, it has had few equals for interest. It relates the history and the vicissitudes of a woman whose life was crushed and despoiled. She had two suitors, the one English and the other French, but through a series of singular misfortunes she became the wife of neither, and late in life assumed the veil. The local descriptions of scenery at the opening of this story are wonderfully graphic, and the crashing of a storm among the mountains is very finely rendered. The two men, unable to win the fair Lucile, married in pique; and on more than one occasion in their lives they were on the point of bringing death upon each other, when, by providential circumstances, the woman they had lost was enabled to interpose, and to save them. At length, after long years, the son of the Englishman and the daughter of the Frenchman met, and fell in love. The youth was wounded in the Crimea, and : when supposed to be dying was tended by a Sister of Mercy, who afterwards discovered herself as the long-lost Lucile. She learnt the history of the lovers, and by her efforts they were not only united, but the foud between the fathers yielded to her influence, and they became friends for ever. As for

Lucile herself, we last see her pursuing the work of love and mercy she had undertaken. Such is, in brief, the substance of this poem, on almost every page of which may be found some happy touch of human character, or some glowing depiction of outward nature.

Other works of importance written by Lord Lytton were "Julian Fane, a Memoir;" a collection of the national songs of Servia; "The Ring of Amasis;" "Chronicles and Characters;" and "Orval: or, the Fool of Time." He also wrote a prefatory memoir to the speeches of his father. But one of the works by which he will be chiefly remembered is his volume of verse, "Fables in Song." It is full of happily-turned conceits, and though, from the very nature of it, the author has not striven to give us the highest characteristics of poetry, there is still much of his best labour stowed away in its pages. To mention one amongst many of these fables, "The Thistle" absolutely bristles with choice thoughts and poetic scintillations; and in the course of it we come upon a beautiful description of Spring, worthy of being read even after so much has been sung of the season by nearly all the poets. "A Philosopher" is a poem of a totally different stamp, intended to correct the exaggerated notions which men are in the habit of forming of themselves. To review the volume here, however, is not our purpose; it must suffice for us to state that it maintains in every way its author's previous reputation, if it does not, indeed, enhance it. We trust that Lord Lytton may still find occasion for cultivating the Muse. He is a genuine singer, and the world can ill afford to lose him in this capacity.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied from a Photograph by Emil Rabending, Wien.]



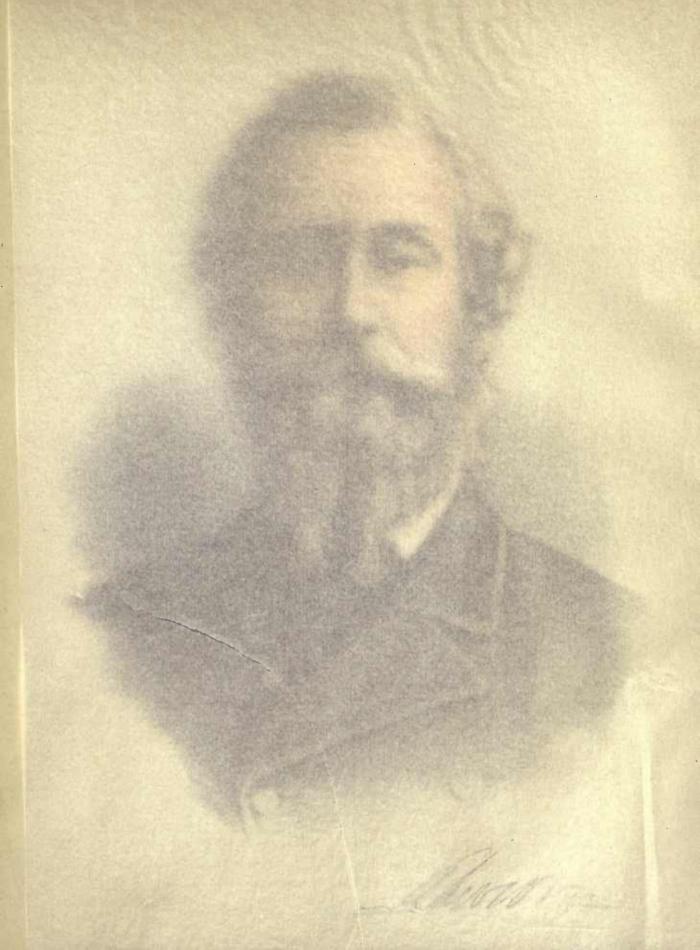


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THE DUKE OF ABERCORN.

THOUGH the ducal title of Abercorn is a creation of our own day, the police process of it can A boast as historic a lineage as any peer of the realm, while at the same time he enjoys, along with the Duke of Buckingham and Chandos and the Earl of Versians, the distinction of a peerage in each of the three kingdoms; being-besides Dake of Abereven, Masquis of Hamilton, Viscount Strabane, Lord Hamilton, Baron of Strabane, and Baron of Mounteastle, in the peopage of Ireland Margais of Abercorn and Viscount Hamilton in the populars of Great Britain; and Earl of Abercorn, Baron of Paisley, Aberbrothick, Abercorn, Hamilton, Mounteastie, and Kilpatrick, in the peerage of Scotland. He is also a member of the French wollews, being, as heir male of the house of Hamilton, Duke of Châtellerault, in Poictou. The family name of Hamilton is derived from the manor of Hameldon, otherwise Hamilton, in the county of Leicester, which was granted to a younger member of the great Norman family, the De Bellomonts, Earls of Leicester, which has long since become extinct. The Abercorn Hamiltons are, however, a Scotch family, the present Duke of Abercorn being a direct descendant of Robert Bruce, King of Scotland; at the same time he has some of the blood of the old Kings of Ireland in his voice, being a descendant of Strongbow and Eva, his wife, who was daughter of Dermot MacMurrough, King of Launster. The early annals of the Hamilton family are mixed up with the stirring events of Scotch history In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and show the members of it to have been active and storing, level to their sovereigns, whom they served in the council and the field, and whose various titles which cluster round the Duke of Aberenra, and the large possessions which from time to time accured to his ancestors, were the recognitions of services faithfully rendered and of reverses bravely endured in the cause of royalty. We find some of his ancestors in command of royal armies; one, an ambassador to England; another, Regent of Scotland and Protector of the infant Queen Mary, and the recognised here to the Crown of Sectland. Two of them were suitors for the hands of the rival Chasens, Whitebeth and Mary. When James I. resolved upon his scheme for colonising the north of Iroland with English and Scotch, he selected as his agent for carrying it out James. Earl of Aberoom, the oldest son of Lord Claud Humilton (Raron Pulsley), and bestowed on him large bracks of the fortisted estates in the Barony of Strabane, and at the same time created his cides out a peer of Indiand, by the title of Lord Hamilton. Heren of Strubane, in consideration of his solds descent and of his father's services, and to encourage laim and his posterity to settle in Ireland.

Eventually the titles and honours passed out of the senior line, and deviced upon James, second earl of Abercorn, the representative of the next branch, and finally, in 1761, an James Hamilton, the grandson of Sir George Hamilton, of Douzlong, county Tymas, and of Newagh, county Tipperary, who had received a baronetcy from Charles II., on account of his devotion to Charles I. He was an adherent of King William, on behalf of whom he served at the



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THOUGH the ducal title of Abercorn is a creation of our own day, the noble possessor of it can boast as historic a lineage as any peer of the realm, while at the same time he enjoys, along with the Duke of Buckingham and Chandos and the Earl of Vernlam, the distinction of a peerage in each of the three kingdoms; being—besides Duke of Abercorn, Marquis of Hamilton, Viscount Strabane, Lord Hamilton, Baron of Strabane, and Baron of Mountcastle, in the peerage of Ireland -Marquis of Abercorn and Viscount Hamilton in the peerage of Great Britain; and Earl of Abercorn, Baron of Paisley, Aberbrothick, Abercorn, Hamilton, Mountcastle, and Kilpatrick, in the peerage of Scotland. He is also a member of the French noblesse, being, as heir male of the house of Hamilton, Duke of Châtellerault, in Poietou. The family name of Hamilton is derived from the manor of Hameldon, otherwise Hamilton, in the county of Leicester, which was granted to a younger member of the great Norman family, the De Bellomonts, Earls of Leicester, which has long since become extinct. The Abercorn Hamiltons are, however, a Scotch family, the present Duke of Abercorn being a direct descendant of Robert Bruce, King of Scotland; at the same time he has some of the blood of the old Kings of Ireland in his veins, being a descendant of Strongbow and Eva, his wife, who was daughter of Dermot MacMurrough, King of Leinster. The early annals of the Hamilton family are mixed up with the stirring events of Scotch history in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and show the members of it to have been active and stirring, loyal to their sovereigns, whom they served in the council and the field, and whose varying fortunes they shared. The various titles which cluster round the Duke of Abercorn, and the large possessions which from time to time accrued to his ancestors, were the recognitions of services faithfully rendered and of reverses bravely endured in the cause of royalty. We find some of his aneestors in command of royal armies; one, an ambassador to England; another, Regent of Scotland and Protector of the infant Queen Mary, and the recognised heir to the Crown of Scotland. Two of them were suitors for the hands of the rival Queens, Elizabeth and Mary. When James I. resolved upon his scheme for colonising the north of Ireland with English and Scotch, he selected as his agent for carrying it out James, Earl of Abercorn, the eldest son of Lord Claud Hamilton (Baron Paisley), and bestowed on him large tracts of the forfeited estates in the Barony of Strabane, and at the same time created his eldest son a peer of Ireland, by the title of Lord Hamilton, Baron of Strabane, in consideration of his noble descent and of his father's services, and to encourage him and his posterity to settle in Ireland.

Eventually the titles and honours passed out of the senior line, and devolved upon James, second earl of Abercorn, the representative of the next branch, and finally, in 1701, on James Hamilton, the grandson of Sir George Hamilton, of Donalong, county Tyrone, and of Nenagh, county Tipperary, who had received a baronetey from Charles II., on account of his devotion to Charles I. He was an adherent of King William, on behalf of whom he served at the

siege of Londonderry. His son and successor was a man of scientific attainments, and was the author of "Calculations and Tables on the Attractive Power of Loadstones;" and it was the son of this nobleman who, at considerable expense, built the splendid family mansion, Barons Court, in the county of Tyrone. His nephew and successor, John-James, ninth Earl of Abercorn, was immediately after his accession created Marquis of Abercorn, and took a very active part in the administration of Irish affairs. At a period when corruption and jobbery were only too prevalent, he held himself above everything of the sort, and by his thorough honesty and uncompromising principle obtained vast influence. He was spoken of as a man highly gifted by nature, and whose talents had been improved by sedulous attention to an excellent education. If he had remained a Commoner, it was the opinion of Mr. Pitt that he must have been one of the most distinguished speakers in the Lower House. He was fully alive to the dignity of his position, and spared no expense to keep up its state and style. His hospitable mansion in England was the resort of the fashionable world and of those who were distinguished in literature. This eminent peer died in 1818, four years after the death of his son, and was succeeded by his grandson, the present representative of the family, who was at the time but seven years old.

The young Marquis had as his guardian George, fourth Earl of Aberdeen, known as "The Travelled Thane, Athenian Aberdeen;" and who in 1815 had married his ward's mother. By such a guardian the education of his charge, the present Duke, was sure to be well attended to. He was sent in due time to Harrow, from whence he went up to Christ Church, Oxford, there to prepare for the exalted position to which he had attained at such an early age. Here he had as his contemporaries Lord Dalhousie (who afterwards became Governor-General of India), Lord Harris, and the Duke of Newcastle (who occupied an eminent position as a statesman, and was Secretary for the Colonies in Lord Palmerston's administration). And with them was one who, though but a Commoner, bears a name which will always occupy a foremost place in the annals of this century—William Ewart Gladstone. On the first appearance of the Marquis in Parliament, he took his seat on the Conservative side, and voted against the Reform Bill introduced by Earl Grey in 1832, and his maiden speech was in moving the address to the Queen in 1842. Lord Melbourne, who was then in Opposition, expressed his gratification at the speech of the mover of the address, and said that there was no one of those most closely connected with him who had heard him with more satisfaction than he had done. The Marquis subsequently held the office of Groom of the Stole to H.R.H. the Prince Consort, which, as a matter of course, kept him much about the Court; but a great portion of his time was passed in Ireland, in the discharge of his duties as landlord, surrounded by a tenantry with whom he was highly popular, and who regarded him with feelings of just pride and affection. In 1844 his Lordship was created a Knight of the Garter.

When the Government of Lord Derby succeeded to office in 1866, the state of Ireland was such as to cause the utmost anxiety to those who were responsible for its good government. The chronic disaffection which existed under the form of Fenianism had kept the previous Government in a state of constant vigilance and solicitude, and the Special Commission which had tried several persons charged with being concerned in this conspiracy, had not succeeded in crushing the rebellious feeling. It was, therefore, a matter of the highest importance to the welfare of the State that the appointment to the Lord-Lieutenancy of Ireland should be one which would ensure good government, and command the confidence of the nation. There was also another consideration to be kept in view in making this appointment. Preceding viceroys had lowered the status of the office in a social point of view, so much so, indeed, that there was a very

general feeling, even amongst the Dublin tradespeople, that it was not worth preserving, and its abolition had been mooted not merely in social circles, but even in Parliament and the English press. It was felt that the selection made by the Conservative Government would indicate what their feeling was as to the continuance of the office. It was, therefore, with no small satisfaction that, after the rumour of another appointment, which rather suggested decadence, it was announced that the Marquis of Abercorn, known for his princely liberality on his estates in the north of Ireland, had accepted the post. All parties felt that the splendour of the vice-royalty would be revived by him, and everything done to maintain its prestige, while the fact that the Marquis was an Irish landlord assured all classes and parties that Irish interests would be well looked after.

Numerous State prosecutions against the leaders in the Fenian movement devolved upon the new Lord-Lieutenant. These were conducted by his law advisers in a way that gained the approval of all faithful subjects, and undoubtedly disarmed to a certain extent the hostility of the disaffected. A policy of reconciliation mixed with firmness was adopted. But the hopes of the Marquis of Abercorn that the spirit of disaffection might thus be entirely overcome, and his country enter on a career of prosperity were disappointed through the persevering efforts of companies of the insurgent Brotherhood who came from the United States; and severe measures of repression had to be resorted to. These, however, with the judicious admixture of well-timed elemency, rendered abortive all the efforts of the Fenian leaders to excite the people to anything more than desultory outbreaks.

The retirement of Lord Derby from the head of affairs, and the succession of Mr. Disraeli as Prime Minister, made no alteration in the Irish Government; and the Marquis of Abercorn continued to discharge the ardnous duties of the office of Lord-Lieutenant until 1868, when the general election having gone against the Government, he, with the rest of the Ministry, resigned office.

Previously to this his Lordship gave a signal proof of his political sagacity, and of his ability to diseern between the treasonable efforts of a few demagogues and the genuine loyalty of a nation with which he identified himself in person and in office. We allude to the visit of the Prince and Princess of Wales to Ireland in the spring of 1868, and just after the Habeas Corpus Suspension Act had been passed for the third time. Some politicians looked upon this proposed visit as a most hazardous venture, but the Marquis of Abereorn, knowing that it would be grateful to the Irish people, urged and pressed it forward as a peace-offering. The success of this step was all that could be desired, and nothing could exceed the splendour with which all the arrangements were made for the reception of their Royal Highnesses. The Marquis left nothing undone which could give lustre to an event which, as it turned out, was one of the closing acts of his own viceroyalty. His Excellency, attended by a brilliant suite, received the royal party at Kingstown, where their reception was most hearty, and all along the beautiful sea road by which they drove to Dublin the manifestations of loyalty were very decided and enthusiastic. But the great event of this visit was the installation of the Prince of Wales as Knight of St. Patrick. The proceedings were managed by Sir Bernard Burke, Ulster King of Arms, and passed off with all the éclat of a state ceremonial. Besides the viceregal party, the Duke of Cambridge and the Lord Mayors of London and Dublin attended upon the Prince and Princess; and a chronicler of the event says, "The different uniforms of the soldiery, the manycoloured dresses of the ladies, the gorgeous liveries of the grooms and servants, the splendid horses drawing magnificent coaches, and the bright sunshine over all, made up a brilliant

scene." The old cathedral had undergone alterations in its interior to fit it for this event, and when the royal party arrived there it was received with the National Anthem, sung as the procession moved up the aisle. "First came the dignitaries of the Church, after whom followed those more immediately connected with the proceedings; kettle-drums and trumpets preceded the pursuivants in their quaint uniform-Lord George Hamilton and the Honourable H. Bourke. Next came the members of the viceregal household, followed by the installed knights." The Prince of Wales followed, with the Grand Master, the Lord-Lieutenant, attended by young noblemen as pages. The ceremony commenced with some formalities, and then the choir sang the "Te Deum" which Sir John Stevenson had composed for the installation of George IV. The Prince, having been duly girt with the sword, and robed with the mantle, and admonished according to prescribed form by the prelate of the order, advanced to the stall of the Grand Master, and having been invested by his Excellency with the collar of St. Patrick, was thus addressed by him: - "Sir, the loving company of the Order of St. Patrick hath received you, their brother, lover, and fellow, and in token and knowledge of this, they give you and present you this badge, the which God will that you receive and wear from henceforth, to His praise and pleasure, and to the exaltation and honour of the said illustrious order and yourself." After some anthems sung by the choir, Ulster King of Arms rose, and making three reverences to the Grand Master, waved his sceptre, whereupon the procession retired from the cathedral, and a most brilliant scene was brought to a close.

No candid historian of the short but trying period of this viceroyalty can withhold his testimony to the wonderful success which attended the Marquis of Abercorn's administration; for when he went out of office the state of Ireland was one of comparative quiet, while its prosperity was something remarkable. In testimony of the Queen's satisfaction at the success of her viceregent over this important part of her dominions, the Marquis of Abercorn had been raised, a few months before his retirement, to the Dukedom of Abercorn and to the Marquisate of Hamilton, as head of the house of Hamilton—an honour which was generally acknowledged to be a well-deserved recognition of important services to the State. It was hailed with pleasure in Ireland, and numerous addresses of congratulation were presented by different public bodies. Among these was one from the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses of Belfast, the chief commercial city of Ireland, the citizens of which are well known for their public and independent spirit. Replying to them, his Grace said, "I accept with sincere pleasure your very kind congratulations to myself upon the distinction which Her Majesty has been pleased to confer upon me, and I thank you most heartily for the good wishes with which they are accompanied. It is especially gratifying to me to find that the efforts of myself and those with whom I have been associated in the government of this country, during the late times of uncertainty and anxiety, now, happily, of the past, are understood and appreciated, particularly by a community so distinguished for loyalty and intelligence as that which is represented by the mayor, aldermen, and burgesses of Belfast. The genuine expression of your sympathy and congratulations on the providential escape of the Duchess of Abercorn and other members of our family, on the occasion of the late calamitous railway accident, affords me, I can assure you, the highest gratification; and in their behalf and my own, I cannot too warmly thank you for the very cordial and feeling terms in which you have alluded to their preservation by Divine Providence in a catastrophe which was, unhappily, fatal to so many others, and by which a feeling of deep grief for the sufferers, and of profound sympathy for those who deplore their loss, has been so strongly aroused in the public mind." The accident alluded to had indeed imperilled the happiness of the Abercorn family. It occurred at Abergele, to the Irish

mail train, which came into collision with some wagons laden with barrels of petroleum; the inflammable cargo took fire from the engine, and the passenger carriages next to them were instantaneously in flames, and thirty-three persons, unable to extricate themselves, were burnt alive. In the train were the Duchess of Abercorn, her eldest son the Marquis of Hamilton, and four other members of the family. They had been seated in the first compartment of the carriage, next to the engine; but fortunately for them, some carriages were placed in front of theirs at Chester, and they were thus preserved.

A few years before his creation as an Irish duke, the Marquis of Abercorn had established his claim as heir male to the French dukedom of Châtellerault. This title was granted by letters patent in 1548 to the second Earl of Arran, the Regent of Scotland, and to his heirs, successors, and ayants cause for ever, which latter words limited the inheritance to descendants de Notwithstanding these words, which had the authority of a royal edict of Louis XIV., and which declared that the inheritance was strictly confined to the male heirs descended in the male line from the first duke, the late Emperor Napoleon issued in 1864 a decree to "confirm and maintain" his near relative the Duke of Hamilton in the hereditary title of Duke of Châtellerault. The first and second Dukes of Hamilton, who were brothers, had of right enjoyed this title, but they dying without issue, a daughter of the first Duke became Duchess of Hamilton, but being unable to hold the title of Châtellerault, it, with the earldom of Abereorn, devolved upon the heir male of the house of Hamilton, and passed away for ever from the descendants and representatives of the first Duke of Hamilton. When this point was thought to be settled in favour of the present Duke of Hamilton by an arbitrary decree of Napoleon III., the opinion of Monsieur Dufaure, the eminent French avocat and statesman, was sought. After a careful investigation, he gave as his opinion that "if the dukedom of Châtellerault is to be revived in favour of a descendant of the Earl of Arran, the Marquis of Abercorn has incontestably the best claim to have the title conferred upon him." The Duke of Abercorn therefore has assumed as his undoubted legal right the style and title of Duke of Châtellerault, which had been in desuetude from the death of the fifth holder of it in 1651, and no appeal has been made against it before the French tribunals.

The Duke of Abercorn was succeeded in the Lord-Lieutenancy by Earl Spencer, who during his tenure of office suffered its dignity to be in no way impaired. When the Couservative party returned to office in 1874, considerable anxiety was felt respecting his successor, on whom would devolve the responsibility of competing with the great popularity which the Earl and Countess Spencer had won by their princely hospitality. The first thought naturally was that the Duke of Abercorn, who had won such golden opinions when he resided at Dublin Castle, would again resume his place there, and it was with some concern the rumour was heard that on account of the health of the duchess, his Grace hesitated to accept the post. It was therefore a great relief to the friends of the new Ministry to learn that the Duke consented to resume the duties of Lord-Lieutenant; and the daily papers, which reflected different political opinions, all agreed in expressing satisfaction at his return to a position which he had formerly filled with so much honour. Perhaps nothing showed more how this satisfaction was felt by even the opponents of the Conservative Ministry than the address of congratulation on his Grace's appointment which was presented by the Limerick Corporation. The mover of it reminded the meeting that the Duke of Abercorn was an Irishman, and that few could more efficiently advance the interests of the The seconder of it said that he was opposed to the party whom his Grace represented, but that did not prevent him paying a tribute to a nobleman who was deeply interested

in the prosperity of the country. He believed that a better appointment to the office had never been made. He was quite sure that, free from all party consideration, the Lord-Lieutenant would do everything in his power to promote the true interests of the country, and he added, as an advocate of home rule, that the appointment made by the Tory Government would give Other public bodies approached the viceregal throne with general satisfaction in Ireland. similar and not less generous expressions of pleasure. The officials of what might almost be called the capital of the North thus truly spoke:-"The great proof of the esteem entertained for your Grace is the fact that upon a change of Government all parties seemed to look to your Grace as the most fitting representative of Her Majesty in this country. It is a matter of congratulation that the peace and prosperity which prevailed under your former tenure of office have not abated, and that everything around us betokens a long continuance of these great blessings." The Duke's reply shows how deeply he appreciated these words, coming from those who had considerable knowledge of him as a resident in their neighbourhood. "The intimate acquaintance," he said, "which I have with your ancient historic city, and the personal friendship which I have the advantage of possessing among your citizens, make your welcome doubly agreeable to myself," And referring to his future line of conduct as viceroy, he said, "It will be my endeavour during my present term of office, as it was on a former occasion, while administering the government in a firm and impartial spirit, to spare no effort that may advance the sound and permanent improvement of the country."

Great changes had occurred in Ireland since the Duke had held office there. Fenianism, at least in its violent form, had yielded to the measures which he himself had adopted for its repression. But, above all, the position of the Irish Church had changed: disestablishment had taken place, and there no longer existed in Ireland a State Church, connected by ecclesiastical as well as by legal ties with the Established Church of England. With the disestablishment of the Irish Church all official connection between it and the Lord-Lieutenant came to an end; but as a member of the Synod, and in every other way in his private capacity; the Duke continued to give the Irish Church all encouragement throughout the difficult work of its re-construction.

To everything which could advance the prosperity of Ireland the Duke devoted himself with ready carnestness, and art and trade received from him every encouragement. How much Ireland prospered under his fostering care will best appear from his own words, spoken in 1876, at the annual banquet in the Dublin Mausion House. His Grace said, "I am happy to say that on this occasion we have the encouraging fact that the material prosperity of Ireland has not only not deteriorated during the past year, but has made a positive and decided advance—an advance which gives us well-founded hopes of seeing a progressive improvement in the future. I am happy to say that, as regards that diminution of crime and outrage, which is the mainspring of national and commercial prosperity, we have had encouraging reports during the present year, the returns of outrages reported during the past year showing a decrease of 4 per cent. as compared with those of 1875, while the returns of 1874 showed also a considerable diminution as compared with those of preceding years. I believe the returns of most of the banks of Ireland are also very satisfactory; and we find that the amount of deposits in them are increasing every year, the amount of deposits and savings receiving dividends in the Bank of Ireland showing an increase this year of nearly one million, and of twelve millions over the corresponding period ten years ago."

The first viceroyalty of the Duke was marked by the magnificent pageantry attending the installation of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales as a Knight of St. Patrick; and his second tenure of office was distinguished by an event which, though not graced by royalty,

nor surrounded with military pomp or processional display, is one which we cannot pass overwe mean the grand fancy dress ball which his Grace gave at Dublin Castle on the 13th of March. 1876. It was a brilliant success, and from the magnificence of the costumes, attracted great There were in the gay throng dragoon guards in the uniform in attention and applause. which they escorted James II., Knights Templars, and Zouaves, cavaliers of the time of Charles I., and ladies stiff in Elizabethan frills, New Zealanders, Chinese mandarins, with representatives of the various countries of Europe and districts of India; there were quadrilles, Shakespearian, Venetian, Wayerley, and Eastern, the characters in which were borne by ladies rich in velvet and satin and cloth of gold, in diamonds, emeralds, and pearls, the various costumes now blending. now contrasting—all contributing to make a most splendid scene. The Duke of Abercorn appeared in the character of Charles I.; and with his commanding person, set off by the wellknown eostume of His Majesty, and with his own noble mien, the descendant of a regal line looked every inch a king. Illness prevented the Duchess of Abercorn from appearing, but His Grace was accompanied by his daughter, Lady Georgiana Hamilton, who appeared in the character of Elizabeth of Austria, queen of Charles IX. of France. The whole was indeed a brilliant scene, and well worthy of the noble representative of Her Majesty the Queen.

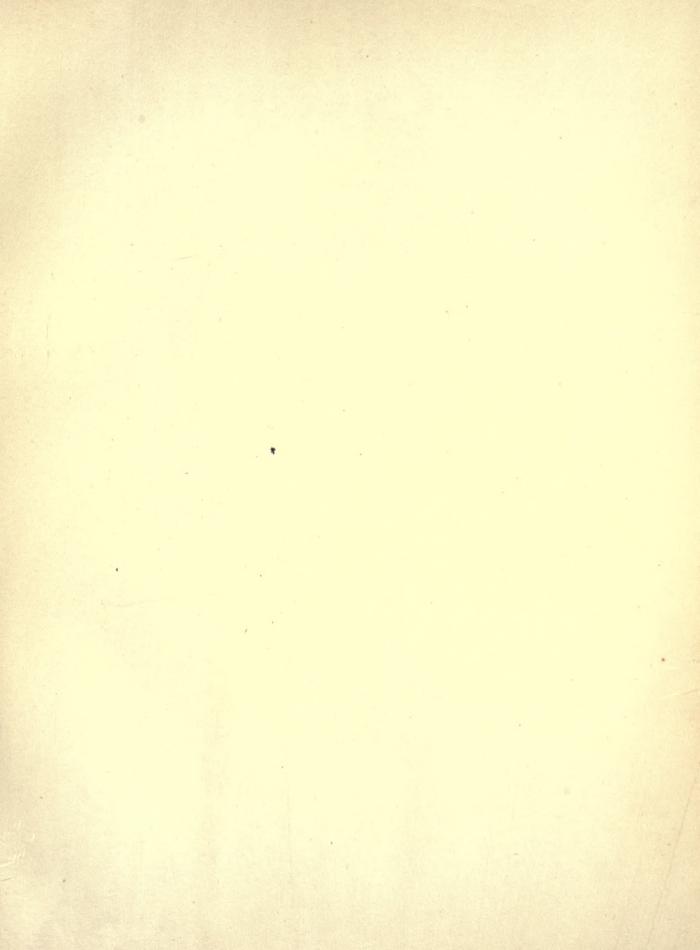
Before the year 1876 had expired, the Duke resigned his office, for the same reasons that had made him hesitate to accept it in 1874. General regret was expressed on the announcement of his retirement being made; and ample testimony was borne by men of all parties to the even-handed justice with which he had administered his high office, to the invariable courtesy which His Grace had always exhibited, to his generous and princely hospitality, and, above all, to his devotion to the best interests of Ireland. Retiring, with the goodwill and affection of those whom he had ruled in the Queen's name, from a scene of peace, prosperity, and contentment, rarely, if ever, did a Viceroy of Ireland lay down his sceptre under happier circumstances.

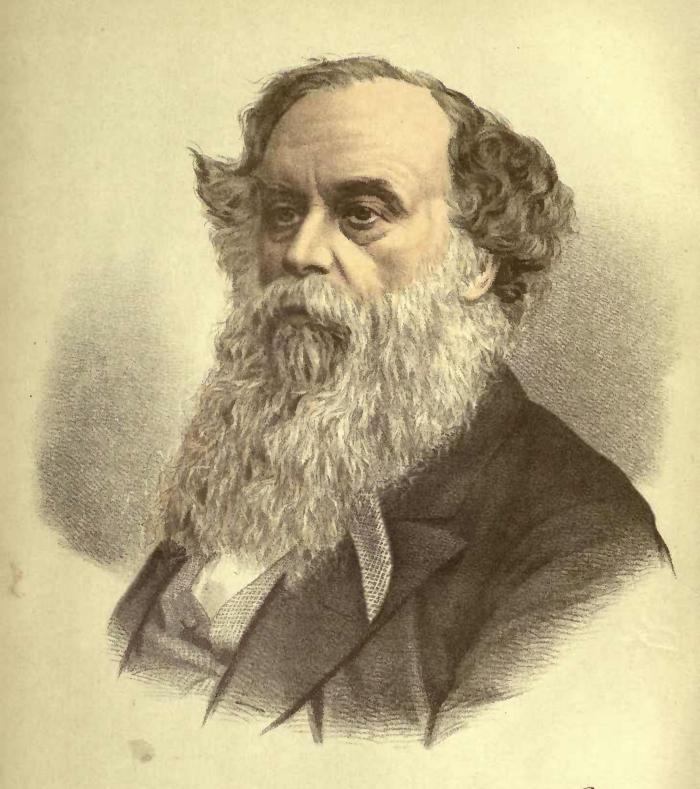
We have written of the Duke in his public character; our sketch would not be complete if we did not etch into it some personal and family lines. To his Graec may be applied words which were written of his grandfather, whose mantle in many respects has fallen upon him. "The blood of the Stuarts runs in his veins; the beauty of the Darnley and the hauteur of the Bothwell are the characteristics of his distinguished person. Had he occupied the throne of his ancestors he would have been the justest despot that ever lived, for though he loved power much he loved truth more—and truth is justice."

Shortly after his Grace came of age he married the Lady Louisa Jane Russell, second daughter of John, sixth Duke of Bedford. This marriage has been attended with the happiest results, and has added to the lustre of his position the unquestionable blessing of domestic bliss. It is sometimes thought that in the higher circles of life the necessary mixture with the world of fashion blunts the domestic affections, and that it is hard to find among the higher ranks genuine family love. But, however this may be the case with others, there is no absence of this virtue in the Abercorn family: the silver cord of love unites the parents with the children, and the brothers with their sisters; and in his family intercourse with his sons, the Duke is, in manner as well as in appearance, more like an elder brother than a father. The daughters, have been married to distinguished members of the British peerage, and the sons who have entered public life are as eminent for their abilities as for their birth. The heir-apparent of the dignities of this ducal family, the Marquis of Hamilton, who sits in the House of Commons as member for the county of Donegal, is one of the most useful and independent of the nation's representatives. He suffers no political ties of party to prevent him

voting for what he considers the interests of his country, and though a Conservative, is often found in the lobby with even home rulers, when the welfare of Ireland is the question. His Grace's second son, Lord Claud John, was scarcely of age when he was elected member for the city of Londonderry, and when by a combination of political factions he was ousted from that seat, he was at once returned for King's Lynn, which he has continued to represent. His third son, Lord George Hamilton, born in 1845, was in 1868 elected for the metropolitan county of Middlesex, and on being returned for it at the general election in 1874, was appointed by Mr. Disraeli Under-Secretary of State for India. In this capacity, as well as in his place in Parliament, he has shown such undoubted ability that he is regarded as one of the statesmen of the future, and by his honesty of purpose, his straightforward conduct, and his genial manner, he has won the confidence, and commands the respect of both sides of the House. Two other scions remain to come forward in due time, and take their place in public life, and so fill up their father's cup of family happiness.

If we look round the historic peerage of Great Britain, we shall find none to surpass the Duke of Abercorn in illustrious descent or in dignity of position, and if we search the records of all the families of the empire, we shall not find one which has had more experience of how good and joyful a thing it is to dwell together in unity, nor one of which so many of the younger members have attained to such high positions in public life as the Lords Hamilton, whose guiding principle is well expressed in the family motto, Sola nobilitas virtus.

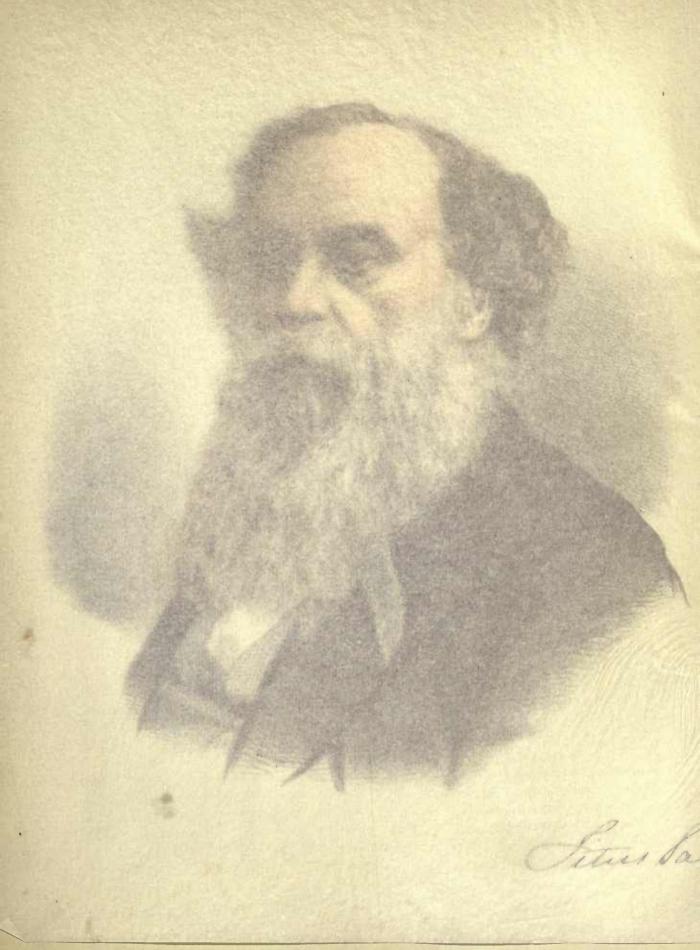




Situs Sale

SIR TITUS SALT, BART

CIR TITUS SALT is a native of that county which has long been the nurse of a race D pre-eminent for many of those qualities which distinguish the Anglo-Saxon people. For keenness of discernment, untiring industry, and that strength of will and general force of character which triumph over every discouragement, and surmount every obstacle. Yorkshiremen are distinguished even among their own countrymen; and Sir Titus Salt is a typical Yorkshireman. He was born in Yorkshire. In that county he has passed his life, raised his fame and amassed his fortune. The place of his birth (which took place in 1803) was the old Manor House between Wakefield and Leeds, whence his father—the late Daniel Salt, Esq. -removed, first to Crofton, near Wakefield, and subsequently to Bradford. In the town last mentioned Mr. Daniel Salt carried on business as a wool dealer, with his son Titus as partner. In this neighbourhood it was that the son was destined ere long to do things which would carry his name to the ends of the earth. We have spoken of Sir Titus Salt as a characteristic Yorkshireman. But he is also more than this. He is a representative man of that class to whom in a large measure Britain owes her unequalled material prosperity-we mean her great manufacturers. As a manufacturer few during the past generation have done greater things than Sir Titus Salt. Those great practical talents and that massive force of will requisite to ensure a gigantic commercial success have seldom been more brilliantly exemplified than in his case. He is, what few or no other living men can boast of being, the creator of a new, important, and permanent branch of industry. It is his proud distinction, by his energy and abilities, to have added to the already multitudinous manufactures of his native land another and a new one, which he has had the rare fortune to see developed within his own lifetime into a vast and permanent staple trade, giving employment and affording the means of subsistence to thousands of his fellow-countrymen, and contributing a variety of useful and beautiful articles to the comforts and luxuries of the human race. If the adage be true that the man who makes two blades of grass grow where but one grew before is a benefactor of his kind, what shall we say of the man who has created a manufacture of such magnitude as that with which Sir Titus Salt has been connected? On this ground alone, he is entitled to be regarded as a benefactor of his race. But these are not his only qualifications for the name. Sir Titus Salt has direct and independent claims to the title of philanthropist. Other inventors and pioneers have existed before him. Others, as well as he, have opened new fields of productive industry. But, in most cases, such pioneers have had only their own private advantage in view. Their object has frequently been to amass as rapidly as possible a large private fortune, regardless of the welfare of the human agents by whose assistance they were enabled to realise their design. Such, however, was not the way with Sir Titus Salt. And his highest and proudest boast will ever be that he founded and created, not only a new manufacture, but also a new and perfectly



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CIR TITUS SALT is a native of that county which has long been the nurse of a race pre-eminent for many of those qualities which distinguish the Anglo-Saxon people. For keenness of discernment, untiring industry, and that strength of will and general force of character which triumph over every discouragement, and surmount every obstacle, Yorkshiremen are distinguished even among their own countrymen; and Sir Titus Salt is a typical Yorkshireman. He was born in Yorkshire. In that county he has passed his life, raised his fame, and amassed his fortune. The place of his birth (which took place in 1803) was the old Manor House between Wakefield and Leeds, whence his father—the late Daniel Salt, Esq. -removed, first to Crofton, near Wakefield, and subsequently to Bradford. In the town last mentioned Mr. Daniel Salt carried on business as a wool dealer, with his son Titus as partner. In this neighbourhood it was that the son was destined ere long to do things which would carry his name to the ends of the earth. We have spoken of Sir Titus Salt as a characteristic But he is also more than this. He is a representative man of that class to whom in a large measure Britain owes her unequalled material prosperity—we mean her great As a manufacturer few during the past generation have done greater things than Sir Titus Salt. Those great practical talents and that massive force of will requisite to ensure a gigantic commercial success have seldom been more brilliantly exemplified than in his He is, what few or no other living men can boast of being, the creator of a new, important, and permanent branch of industry. It is his proud distinction, by his energy and abilities, to have added to the already multitudinous manufactures of his native land another and a new one, which he has had the rare fortune to see developed within his own lifetime into a vast and permanent staple trade, giving employment and affording the means of subsistence to thousands of his fellow-countrymen, and contributing a variety of useful and beautiful articles to the comforts and luxuries of the human race. If the adage be true that the man who makes two blades of grass grow where but one grew before is a benefactor of his kind, what shall we say of the man who has created a manufacture of such magnitude as that with which Sir Titus Salt has been connected? On this ground alone, he is entitled to be regarded as a benefactor of his race. But these are not his only qualifications for the name. Sir Titus Salt has direct and independent claims to the title of philanthropist. Other inventors and pioneers have existed before him. Others, as well as he, have opened new fields of productive industry. But, in most cases, such pioneers have had only their own private advantage in view. Their object has frequently been to amass as rapidly as possible a large private fortune, regardless of the welfare of the human agents by whose assistance they were enabled to realise their design. Such, however, was not the way with Sir Titus Salt. And his highest and proudest boast will ever be that he founded and created, not only a new manufacture, but also a new and perfectly

unique town—a model village—in which he has housed his workpeople with all the comforts, and, indeed, not a few of the luxuries of modern civilised life. The founder of Saltaire has done a noble work superbly. Migrating with his thousands of mill-hands from the narrow and overcrowded atmosphere of Bradford, he planted a colony in a fresh green valley on the banks of the Aire. Here, around a factory which, in extent, architecture, and every suitable manufacturing and sanitary appliance, ranks as one of the noblest palaces of industry in the world, he raised up, as if by magic, a new town, in which the rare elegance and beauty of the public buildings are not more admirable than the taste and minute attention to sanitary laws he displayed in the construction of the dwellings of his multitude of followers.

The first step which Mr. Titus Salt took towards commercial eminence was not in connection with the material with which his fame is now associated. While still a very young man, and acting as partner with his father as a wool dealer, he endeavoured to introduce into the worsted trade a particular kind of fibre, called Russian Donskoi wool, which had hitherto been employed only in the woollen manufacture. But the Bradford spinners would not listen to his proposals; so there was nothing for him to do but to abandon the scheme or commence as a manufacturer himself. Convinced of the soundness of his idea, he resolved to follow the latter and bolder course.

While successfully pursuing this new line of occupation, his energies were before long directed to another and entirely novel field, by an incident which occurred on one of his ordinary business journeys to the great seaport of Lancashire. The nature and circumstances of this event may be gathered from the following humorous description which appeared many years ago in Household Words: -- "A huge pile," says Charles Dickens, "of dirty-looking sacks, filled with some fibrous material, which bore a strong resemblance to superannuated horsehair, or frowsy elongated wool, or anything unpleasant or unattractive, was landed in Liverpool. When these queer-looking bales had first arrived, or by what vessel brought, or for what purpose intended, the very oldest warehouseman in Liverpool Docks couldn't say. There had once been a rumour—a mere warehouseman's rumour—that the balcs had been shipped from South America on 'spec,' and consigned to the agency of C. W. and F. Foozle and Co. But even this seems to have been forgotten, and it was agreed upon all hands that the three hundred and odd sacks of nondescript hair-wool were a perfect nuisance. The rats appeared to be the only parties who approved at all of the importation, and to them it was the finest investment for capital that had been known in Liverpool since their first ancestors had emigrated thither. Well, these bales seemed likely to rot or fall to the dust, or be bitten up for the particular use of family rats. Merchants would have nothing to say to them; dealers couldn't make them out; manufacturers shook their heads at the bare mention of them; while the agents, C. W. and F. Foozle and Co., looked at the bill of lading, and had once spoken to their head-clerk about shipping them to South America again. One day—we won't care what day it was, or even what week or month it was, though things of far less consequence have been chronicled to the half-minute—one day a plain businesslooking young man, with an intelligent face and quiet manner, was walking along through these same warehouses in Liverpool, when his eye fell upon some of the superannuated horse-hair, projecting from one of the ugly dirty bales. Some lady rat, more delicate than her neighbours, had found it rather coarser than usual, and had persuaded her lord and master to eject the portion from her resting-place. Our friend took it up, looked at it, felt at it, rubbed it, pulled it about; in fact, he did all but taste it, and he would have done that too if it had suited his purpose, for he was 'Yorkshire.' Having held it up to the light, and held it away from the light, and held it in all sorts of positions, and done all sorts of cruelties to it, as though it had been his most deadly enemy, and he was feeling quite vindictive, he placed a handful or two in his pocket, and walked calmly away, evidently intending to put the stuff to some excruciating private torture at home. What particular experiments he tried with this fibrous substance I am not exactly in a position to state, nor does it much signify; but the sequel was that the same quiet, business-looking young man was seen to enter the office of C. W. and F. Foozle and Co., and ask for the head of the firm. When he asked that portion of the house if he would accept eightpence per pound for the entire contents of the three hundred and odd frowsy dirty bags of nondescript wool, the authority interrogated felt so confounded that he could not have told if he were the head or tail of the firm. At first he fancied that our friend had come for the express purpose of quizzing him, and then that he was an escaped lunatic, and thought seriously of calling for the police, but eventually it ended in his making it over in consideration of the price offered. It was quite an event in the little dark office of C. W. and F. Foozle and Co., which had its supply of light (of a very injurious quality) from the old grim churchyard. All the establishment stole a peep at the buyer of the 'South American stuff.' The chief clerk had the curiosity to speak to him, and hear his reply. The cashier touched his coat-tails. The book-keeper, a thin man in spectacles, examined his hat and gloves. The porter openly grinned at him. When the quiet purchaser had departed, C. W. and F. Foozle and Co. shut themselves up, and gave all their clerks a holiday."

It was in the year 1836 that this important journey was made. The material, alpaca wool, with which Mr. Salt then first became practically acquainted, had indeed been known in England long before. In 1811, Mr. William Walton described the wool of the llama tribe as of extraordinary length, and of a soft glossy nature. In 1830, Mr. Outram, of Greetland, near Halifax, succeeded in producing a fabric from alpaca wool which sold as a curiosity at a high price; but nothing further was heard of such a fabric until the happy accident above described led the subject of our sketch to devote his attention to the matter.

With what success his efforts have been crowned needs hardly to be told. Within a few years of his entrance upon this work, alpaca cloth was on every draper's counter, and it is now known and prized throughout the world as a common material for articles of both male and female attire. The statistics of the manufacture strikingly exhibit its marvellously rapid growth. Mr. Abraham Holroyd, in his excellent little work, "Saltaire and Its Founder," tells us that "the quantity of the alpaca wool imported from 1836 to 1840 averaged 560,800lbs. per annum. In 1852 the import had reached 2,186,480lbs. weight; and the price had risen from 10d. per lb. in 1836 to 2s. 6d. per lb. in 1852." He adds that in 1850 the number of mills more or less engaged in this manufacture in Bradford and the suburbs was not less than 194. It is estimated that the importation of alpaca wool is now about 4,000,000lbs. per annum. The increase which has of late years taken place in this manufacture may to some extent be gathered from the following figures. The quantity of worsted and other allied stuffs (including alpaca) exported in 1858 was 127,397;116 yards; in 1872 it was 344,968,689 yards. The value at the former date was £5,530,722; at the latter it was £20,905,163. This, it must be remembered, does not include woollen goods, flannels, blankets, or carpets, nor woollen and worsted yarn. Nor, again, does it include the large quantity of worsted, alpaca, and other similar stuffs consumed in the United Kingdom. In the fourteen years under comparison there has been an increase of value in the exports of this class of articles to the extent of nearly 300 per cent., and it is beyond doubt that no small share of that increase belongs to the alpaca manufacture and the other

new materials closely allied to it. Among these the most important is mohair-a branch of textile industry which is most intimately connected with that of alpaca. The raw material consists of the wool of the Angora goat, imported from Asia, from which Sir Titus Salt has succeeded in producing some very beautiful fabrics. In the adaptation of these new materials to weaving, numberless technical difficulties had to be surmounted. New processes had to be devised, new machinery invented. Among other things, the new fibres were not found to produce a fabric of satisfactory strength when used alone. Hence a variety of other materials, such as cotton, silk, sheep's wool, rheea, and other fibres were employed in the manufacture, and led to the production of a vast variety of mixed goods. The mere enumeration of these would occupy considerable space. Previously to the introduction of the new materials, the worsted trade of Bradford and the neighbourhood embraced little besides "camlets, russets, serges, jammies, and calmancoes" which were woven by hand-loom by weavers at their own houses. Now it includes "lastings, crapes, Orleans, casinetts, twills, French figures, Parisians, damasks, camlets, merinoes, challis, mousseline-de-laine, cobourgs, paramattas, shalloons, duroys, taminets, Khybereens, poplins, bombazines, figured satteens, cubicas, fancy waistcoatings, robes for ladies' dresses, and, lastly, but not least, mohairs and figured and embroidered alpacas."

The processes through which the raw material has to go before it becomes fit for the draper are by no means few and simple. The wool arrives in ballots or bales of about 70lbs. each, and containing from six to ten different qualities, which have to be first separated or "sorted." After this come the operations of "washing, drying, plucking, combing, drawing, spinning, weaving, dyeing, pressing, finishing, and folding; or thirteen distinct processes, exclusive of reeling, sizing, and warping, common to the routine of worsted manufacture." And Mr. Holroyd adds that in converting the combed wool into the finished yarn, the fibres in their "sliverings, drawings, and slubbings, are mixed or doubled no fewer than 20,971,520 times.

For more than twenty-five years Mr. Salt carried on the new manufacture in various mills at Bradford. But in 1851, the year of the Great Industrial Exhibition in Hyde Park, he commenced the realisation of the scheme which has stamped him as a great philanthropist, as well as a great manufacturer, and which may be looked upon as marking a new era in English industry. This was the erection of his great model factory and his model workmen's town, which derives its name from the combination of that of its founder with that of the river on the banks of which it stands. In describing this large industrial establishment, Sir William Fairbairn tells us that, "The Saltaire mills are situated in one of the most beautiful parts of the romantic valley of the Aire. The site has been selected with uncommon judgment as regards its fitness for the economical working of a great manufacturing establishment. The estate is bounded by highways and railways which penetrate to the very centre of the buildings, and is intersected by both canal and river. Admirable water is obtained for the use of the steam-engines, and for the different processes of the manufacture. By the distance of the mills from the smoky and cloudy atmosphere of a large town, unobstructed and good light is secured; whilst, both by land and water, direct communication is gained for the importation of coal and all other raw produce on the one hand, and for the exportation and delivery of manufactured goods on the other. Both porterage and cartage are entirely superseded; and every other circumstance which could tend to economise production has been carefully considered. The estate on which Saltaire is built will gradually develop itself to a considerable extent; and the part appropriated to the works, which is literally covered with buildings, is not less than six and a half acres in extent. Here the heavy operations of the manufacture are carried on; but the superficies given to the several processes and to the storage of goods, or, in other words, the floor area of the establishment, is in all about twelve acres. The main range of buildings, or the mill proper, runs from east to west, nearly parallel with the lines of railway from Shipley to Skipton and Lancaster. This pile is six storeys high. 550 feet in length, 50 feet in width, and about 72 feet in height; and the architectural features. to avoid monotony, have been most skilfully treated by the architects. A bold Italian style has been adopted; and the beautiful quality of the stone of which the whole is massively built displays its features to great advantage. Immediately behind the centre of the main mill, and at right angles with it, runs another six-storey building, devoted to warehouse purposes, such as the reception and examination of the newly-manufactured goods; and on either side of this again lie the combing-shed (or apartment where the fibres of the alpaca, mehair, wool, &c., are combed by machinery), the handsome range of buildings devoted to offices, and the great shed for weaving by power-looms. It was in the combing-shed that, in September, 1853, three thousand five hundred of Sir [then Mr.] Titus Salt's guests sat down to dinner. without confusion or crowding, and with perfect ventilation. The great loom-shed would have accommodated under its single roof a party twice as numerous as this. Arranged in convenient situations are washing-rooms, packing-rooms, drying-rooms, and mechanics' shops. In the formation of the new roads which were requisite to secure free and easy access to the different parts of the mills, Sir Titus Salt availed himself of the most recent experience; therefore we find bridges of the most durable and solid construction both in cast and wrought iron, one of these viaduets, on the tubular girder system, crossing the canal and river Aire, being not less than 450 feet in length. More than three thousand persons are employed in these works." It is difficult, indeed, adequately to realise the proportions of this leviathan establishment. The principal front is as long as St. Paul's. The top room, which runs the entire length of the building, is one of the largest and longest rooms in the world. The total area of the flooring is upwards of 55,000 square yards. The steam-engines are amongst the most powerful ever constructed, including four beam-engines on the Corliss principle, and indicating 1,700 horsepower, to which others of the newest and most improved pattern have recently been added. They require about 15,000 tons of coal per annum to drive them. In the construction of the engine-beds alone, not less than 2,500 tons of solid masonry were employed. The length of shafting these powerful machines have to set in motion is nearly 10,000 feet, while its weight is between 600 and 700 tons. The weaving shed was calculated to hold 2,100 looms, producing 30,000 yards of alpaea cloth or mixed goods per diem, or nearly 18 miles of cloth each day. This would give a length of 5,688 miles of cloth per annum, which as the crow flies, would reach over the land and the sea to Peru, to the native mountains of the Alpaca. Beneath the western side is a tank holding half a million gallons of rain-water, used in the manufacture. On the top of the warehouses is another tank, containing 70,000 gallons of water, available in case of fire. At the eastern corner of the principal front stands an enormous chimney, 250 feet high, or nearly one-fourth higher than the monument of London. The base covers 676 square feet, and the entire structure has an imposing and ornamental effect, resembling an Italian campanile, or bell-tower. The architects of the Saltaire works, and indeed of the town itself, were Messrs. Lockwood and Mawson, who have gained the highest honour for the manner in which they accomplished their work.

At the grand inaugural banquet, which took place, as we have said, in one of the rooms of this edifice, on the 20th of September, 1853, and at which, besides 2,500 workpeople, about a

thousand other guests were present, including the Lord-Lieutenant, the members of Parliament of the West Riding and neighbouring boroughs, with their mayors and magistrates, and numerous other persons of distinction, the host uttered a few words, characterised by his usual simplicity and straightforwardness-for he is a man of deeds rather than of words-but which sufficiently mark his unostentatious benevolence and enlightened goodness of heart :- "He might state," he said, "that ten or twelve years ago he had looked for this day, on which he completed his fiftieth year. He had looked forward to this day, when he thought to retire from business and enjoy himself in agricultural pursuits, which would be both congenial to his mind and inclination. But as the time drew near, and looking to his large family, five of them being sons, he reversed that decision, and determined to proceed a little longer, and remain at the head of the firm. Having thus determined, he at once made up his mind to leave Bradford. He did not like to be a party to increasing that already over-crowded borough, but he looked around him for a site suitable for a large manufacturing and commercial establishment, and which for the beauty of its situation and the salubrity of its air was a most desirable place for the erection of dwellings. Far be it from him to pollute the air and water of the district. He would do all he could. and he had no doubt he should be successful, to avoid evils so great as those resulting from polluted air and water; and he hoped to draw around him a population who would enjoy the beauties of the neighbourhood, and who would be well fed, contented, and happy. He had given instructions to his architect, who was quite competent to carry them out, that nothing should be spared to render the dwellings of the operatives a pattern to the country. If his life should be spared by Providence, he hoped to see satisfaction, happiness, and comfort around him."

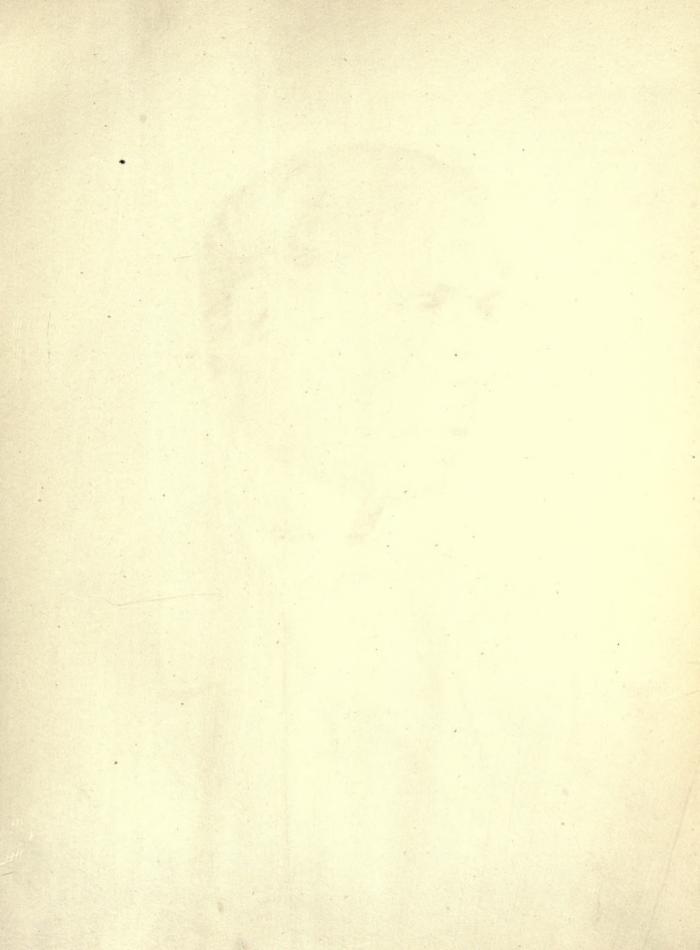
Looking back now over the interval of more than twenty years, since these words were uttered, the speaker may truly congratulate himself on having had his benevolent intentions and wishes realised in the fullest measure. Indeed, the period which has since elapsed has been crowded with events as honourable to himself as they must be gratifying to others. we do not find him adding to his acts of munificence, we see him receiving tokens of deep-felt gratitude from his workpeople, or marks of homage and esteem from his neighbours and Space forbids us to do much more than barely enumerate the more contemporaries generally. conspicuous of his deeds of benevolence. Among these the greatest is that which has been several times alluded to in the course of this sketch—we mean the foundation of the model village of Saltaire. There he has provided his workpeople, at moderate rents, with cheerful and elegant dwellings, in which the demands of sanitary science and the comfort as well as the decency of the inmates have been carefully studied. In the factory itself no expense has been spared to secure for each room and shed abundant light, with excellent provision for warming and ventilation, and for an ample supply of pure air at all seasons and temperatures. In the village there are baths and wash-houses, provided with every modern appliance to lessen labour and promote cleanliness. For the aged and decrepit there are almshouses, forty-five in number, with an adequate weekly allowance for the maintenance of the inmates. There is, moreover, a little chapel attached, of neat and chaste exterior, and fitted up with rare taste within. But these are but the smaller works of Sir Titus's beneficence. In 1859 there was opened a magnificent Congregational chapel, built entirely at his expense, the cost being £16,000. It is in the Italian style of architecture, and is fitted up and decorated in the interior with the most exquisite taste and refinement. Here, too, is the mausoleum of the Salt family-which has been completed but a few years—decorated with grand pieces of mural sculpture in marble, by Mr. J. Adams-Acton. In 1867-68 he built the Saltaire Factory Schools, in a style of which it has been said that "whatever art could invent or money buy has been brought together here. Outside, the ensemble reminds the beholder of some Oriental temple, while the accommodations in the interior are as noble as the object to which it is devoted." The building, which accommodates 750 children, stands back sixty feet from the roadway; the ground between the tasteful palisade and the school being an ornamental garden. Two of the lions designed by Mr. T. Milnes, and originally intended for the Nelson Monument, in Trafalgar Square, are placed on pedestals at the extremities of the palisade. On the other side of the road, and opposite them, are the corresponding pair of lions. These flank the palisade enclosing the Saltaire Club and Institute, another of Sir Titus's gifts to the town. The building was commenced in 1869, and finished in 1871, at a cost of The decorations of the interior, which commenced in 1872, and occupied several months, are in a style seldom attempted in this country. The architecture of the lecture-hall is Roman-Corinthian; and the ornamentations, which are in pure Pompeian style, have been applied in the exact manner for which the room was originally designed. The whole of the twelve large rooms in this building are ornamented in a similar style. The effect of the whole is most gorgeous; and, indeed, it is stated on authority that there is now no public building in the north of England-some who are capable of judging say in the United Kingdomwhich is so richly and splendidly decorated. Sir Titus Salt has prohibited public-houses in Saltaire, but he has given his workpeople this noble institution as a substitute. Its object is "to be in the first place a social club, and, secondly, an educational institute. It is intended to supply the advantages of a public-house without its evils. It will be a place of resort for conversation, business, recreation, and refreshment, as well as for education, elementary, technical, and scientific," the founder having arrived at the conclusion, after careful inquiry, that mechanics' institutes of the ordinary type do not meet the requirements of the working classes in their hours of leisure. Everything that ingenuity could devise in the way of apparatus, fittings, and instruments calculated to carry out the intentions of the giver of this excellent institution has been provided with an unsparing hand. On the north side of the town, and on both banks of the river, is situated Saltaire Park, another of Sir Titus's gifts to the town. It covers fourteen acres, and has a cricket-ground and boat-house, and is laid out in an exceedingly tasteful manner. It was opened with a public festival on the 25th of July, 1871. With the opening of the park the possibility of doing anything further for the inhabitants of Saltaire was thought to have been exhausted. However, Sir Titus has since found another opportunity of exercising his benevolence in the erection of a Sunday-school, capable of holding 1,000 children. The foundation-stone was laid by two of his grandsons, on the 1st of May, 1875. We have here confined ourselves to the munificence shown by Sir Titus in the ease of Saltaire alone, where, indeed, on the principle that "charity begins at home," his greatest acts of benevolence have been exercised. But other places have not been without experience of his generosity. Among instances of this we may mention that he gave £5,000 to the Bradford Fever Hospital, £5,000 to the Lancaster Lunatie Asylum, £1,000 towards the Peel Park, Bradford, and a wing to the Hull Orphan Asylum.

We have left ourselves but little space to speak of the public career of Sir Titus, and of the honours which, as might only be expected, have been conferred upon him. He was Chief Constable of Bradford before the incorporation of that borough, and after that he became its senior alderman. In 1848-49 he served as Mayor of Bradford, and in 1857 as President of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce. Two years later he was returned by the Liberal party of that borough as one of their representatives in the House of Commons, in conjunction with Mr. H-

W. Wickham. While in Parliament he did not attempt any display of oratory, but steadily voted in favour of measures of an enlightened Liberal policy. In 1861 he retired from his seat in Parliament, owing principally to feeble health. In October, 1869, Her Majesty conferred upon him, in consideration of his varied merits and services as a loyal citizen, an eminent manufacturer, a generous master, and an enlightened philanthropist, the distinction of a baronetcy. Not less gratifying than these public honours are the marks of esteem which he has received from his workpeople and neighbours. Three years after the opening of the Saltaire works, the people of the village presented him, in St. George's Hall, Bradford, with a magnificent bust in the finest Carrara marble, standing on a shaft and pedestal of Sicilian marble. In 1871, his admirers in Saltaire subscribed to present Sir Titus with his portrait. This was painted by Mr. J. P. Knight, R.A., and is a work of considerable merit. It is deposited in the Institute at Saltaire. The subscribers numbered 2,296. Other testimony to the great work Sir Titus Salt has accomplished is seen in the numerous distinguished visitors to the town he has founded. Among these may be mentioned Lord Palmerston, when Prime Minister, on the occasion of his visiting Bradford, to lay the foundation-stone of the New Exchange. In 1872, the Burmese Embassy visited Saltaire, and later in the same year the Japanese Ambassadors, with a distinguished retinue, likewise paid a visit to the spot. One more mark of public esteem we have yet to record, and with that our sketch will be brought to an appropriate conclusion.

On Saturday, August the 1st, 1874, a marble statue of Sir Titus Salt, erected in the centre of Bradford, in front of the Town Hall, was unveiled by the Duke of Devonshire, in presence of a large concourse of spectators. Nearly £3,000 had been raised for the purpose by a public subscription, in sums varying from five shillings to a maximum of £5. Sir Titus had scruples against the erection of such a memorial in his lifetime, but his objections were overcome, and the statue, which was cut by Mr. Adams-Acton out of a block of Carrara marble weighing fourteen tons, was completed and inaugurated within four years after the first suggestion of the idea. The figure is seven feet high, and cost one thousand guineas.

The usual and favourite residence of Sir Titus Salt is Crow Nest, Lightcliffe, near Halifax. He married, in 1829, Caroline, daughter of George Whitlam, Esq., of Great Grimsby, and has a numerous family. The eldest son, and heir to the baronetcy, is William Henry, married to Emma Dove, daughter of John Dove Harris, Esq., formerly member of Parliament for Leicester. The other surviving children of Sir Titus are George, Amelia, Edward, Herbert, Titus, Helen, and Ada. The remains of his deceased son Whitlam and of his daughters Fanny and Mary are deposited in the family mausoleum at Saltaire.





Lelborne

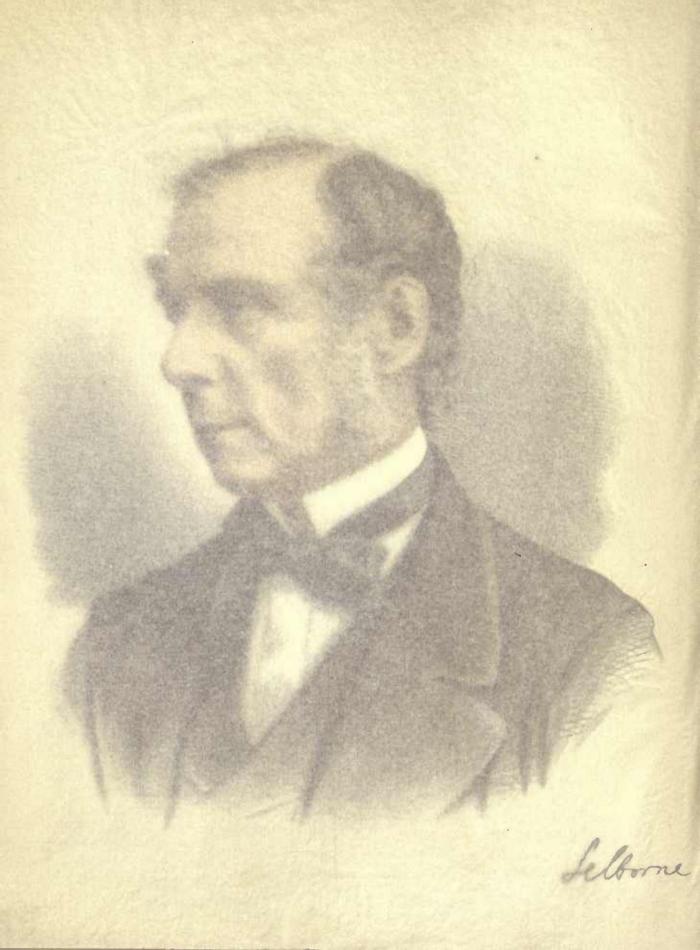
THE RIGHT HON. LORD SELBORNE.

A popular member of the House of Commons a short time ago accepted an invitation from a benefit society to dine with them, and to deliver after dinner a non-political speech on political matters. Such is the somewhat anomalous position of the scribe who ventures to sketch even in outline the biographical features of a man prominent in the political world. It is all very well to say that scribes in general cannot afford the luxury of private opinions, or, taking a somewhat higher view of the duties of the Fourth Estate, that the writer must be content for the time being to merge such private opinions, and be simply descriptive. It is almost inevitable that his individual predilections will peep out; though, at the same time, according to the dexterity with which he merges these, and does impartial justice to Trojan and Tyrian alike, his pen-and-ink sketch will be a faithful supplement to the pictured representation it accompanies.

In that model biography, the life of Agricola by Tacitus, there was the additional difficulty of consanguinity to sway the judgment of the biographer; yet only in two or three consummate strokes of the pen does the fact of such relationship surge up to the surface of the narrative. In the very elaboration of that typical biography, however, the historian, as if conscious of the difficulties which beset the task he had in hand, becomes a landator temporis acti, and tells us how his predecessors in the annalist's art were led to the selection of their subject and its method of treatment by no private favour or personal ambition, but simply by the stimulus of a good conscience. With a peculiarly graceful unconsciousness he writes of the old historians in a strain of panegyric which succeeding ages have endorsed as deservedly due to himself.

Again, to portray the features of a living statesman is really to sketch a moving panorama or photograph the cresting wave. The delineation must be rapid, instantaneous; if not, the kaleidoscope will have revolved, and the whole position be altered. We lack the calm which appertains to the biographies of the past. There we can select our models disentangled from the meshes of party, and quietly commune with them apart from the din of contemporary events. Our men of mark, on the contrary, are mostly still in harness. Lord Selborne himself, for it is of him we are thinking, has so comparatively recently stepped back from the very front rank, that we have scarcely had time to moralise upon the manner in which he occupied that lofty position. His laurels are still green, and it would be prenature to speak of him as sitting down under their shadow. He may, and doubtless will, add to them yet in many a well-fought fray and bloodless encounter. Our task is to review those antecedents which contained within themselves the germs of present distinction, and from them, it may be—assuming for awhile the prophet's office—to augur the possibilities lying veiled in the future. The past and the present, however, have the foremost claim on our regard.

The chronological arrangement of facts in our biography takes us back to a pleasant Oxfordshire parsonage, at the beginning of the present century. The Rev. William Joselyn Pulmer



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A POPULAR member of the House of Commons a short time ago accepted an invitation from a benefit society to dine with them, and to deliver after dinner a non-political speech on political matters. Such is the somewhat anomalous position of the scribe who ventures to sketch even in outline the biographical features of a man prominent in the political world. It is all very well to say that scribes in general cannot afford the luxury of private opinions, or, taking a somewhat higher view of the duties of the Fourth Estate, that the writer must be content for the time being to merge such private opinions, and be simply descriptive. It is almost inevitable that his individual predilections will peep out; though, at the same time, according to the dexterity with which he merges these, and does impartial justice to Trojan and Tyrian alike, his pen-and-ink sketch will be a faithful supplement to the pictured representation it accompanies.

In that model biography, the life of Agricola by Tacitus, there was the additional difficulty of consanguinity to sway the judgment of the biographer; yet only in two or three consummate strokes of the pen does the fact of such relationship surge up to the surface of the narrative. In the very elaboration of that typical biography, however, the historian, as if conscious of the difficulties which beset the task he had in hand, becomes a laudator temporis acti, and tells us how his predecessors in the annalist's art were led to the selection of their subject and its method of treatment by no private favour or personal ambition, but simply by the stimulus of a good conscience. With a peculiarly graceful unconsciousness he writes of the old historians in a strain of panegyric which succeeding ages have endorsed as deservedly due to himself.

Again, to portray the features of a living statesman is really to sketch a moving panorama or photograph the cresting wave. The delineation must be rapid, instantaneous; if not, the kaleidoscope will have revolved, and the whole position be altered. We lack the calm which appertains to the biographies of the past. There we can select our models disentangled from the meshes of party, and quietly commune with them apart from the din of contemporary events. Our men of mark, on the contrary, are mostly still in harness. Lord Selborne himself, for it is of him we are thinking, has so comparatively recently stepped back from the very front rank, that we have scarcely had time to moralise upon the manner in which he occupied that lofty position. His laurels are still green, and it would be premature to speak of him as sitting down under their shadow. He may, and doubtless will, add to them yet in many a well-fought fray and bloodless encounter. Our task is to review those antecedents which contained within themselves the germs of present distinction, and from them, it may be—assuming for awhile the prophet's office—to augur the possibilities lying veiled in the future. The past and the present, however, have the foremost claim on our regard.

The chronological arrangement of facts in our biography takes us back to a pleasant Oxfordshire parsonage, at the beginning of the present century. The Rev. William Jocelyn Palmer was Rector of Mixbury, a rustic parish of between three and four hundred inhabitants, and married Dorothea, youngest daughter of the late Rev. William Roundell, of Gledstone, Yorkshire. There, on the 27th of November, 1812, was born their second son, who bore his grandfather's family name of Roundell. That title, Sir Roundell Palmer-if we look on for the moment just so far as to behold its bearcr advanced to the honours of knighthood—became even more familiar in men's mouths than the later one of Lord Selborne. Amid the customary surroundings of a country parsonage were spent the opening years of the future Lord Chancellor; and, looking back from our present standpoint, there are many of us who think we can trace, in the mental and moral features of the man in his prime, no merely imaginary traces of his very earliest influences. The child is father of the man; and the tone of that retired rectory no doubt accounts for the circumstance that, amid all the excitement of political life, and in the very midst of ambition's race, the statesman paused awhile to give us snatches of sacred song compiled with discrimination from that vast body of English poets who have drunk of the waters of Jordan instead of Castalia for their inspiration, and whose fancy has soared to the Olive Mount as well as to Parnassus. It was not with Sir Roundell Palmer as with holy George Herbert—that he retired from his public position to cultivate the sacred muse. He realised a higher type still by blending the two avocations so wrongly deemed incompatible; fulfilling the very highest ideal of all, the life in the world, yet the simultaneous life above the world. One need perhaps scarcely be deemed fanciful in assigning much of this cast of character to the atmosphere of the quiet country parsonage which surrounded the boy; so plastic is our nature in childhood, so impressionable to all influences, good and bad alike.

Lord Selborne, then—for we must claim the privilege to interchange the titles at our discretion—is essentially a self-made man; since, however favourable the surroundings of a country rectory may be to the growth of virtue and the development of character, there is in them no element which guarantees elevation to the woolsack. From the narrow world of home he passed in due course to the wider arena of school life, gaining his early education at Rugby and Winchester. That he made the most of his opportunities at these celebrated seats of learning his subsequent success at the University abundantly proves. In the year 1830 he gained an open scholarship at Trinity College, Oxford, and those who have undergone the ordeal of an examination for that particular academical distinction will know how much is implied in his success. The Trinity scholarships aim at a very high standard indeed, and the examinations are searching in the extreme. When we remember that the competition is quite open and unrestricted, the testimony borne by this public success to the talents and acquirements of the young Wykehamist is very ample.

And this was only the commencement of a brilliant academical course. In the following year our alumnus gained the chancellor's prize for Latin verse, with a poem on the subject of "Numantia." Twelve months later, in the year 1832, he was awarded the Newdigate prize for English verse, the subject being "Staffa," and he gained the prize for the Latin essay in 1835.

Again, in the same year, he won that always coveted and generally well contested prize, the Ireland Scholarship, and closed a singularly successful undergraduate career by appearing in the first class in Literis Humanioribus at Easter Term, 1834. One seeks in vain for any very distinguished name coupled with that of the subject of our biography; the greatest, perhaps, is that of the late Dr. Elder, Head Master of Durham Grammar School, and afterwards of the Charterhouse, who was classfellow with him. The present Archbishop of Canterbury occupied exactly the same position in the preceding term, having taken a first class in classics,

at Michaelmas term, 1833. There were no colossal successes on this class-list or on those immediately preceding and succeeding it. The name of Roundell Palmer is about the best known, and among the most prominent. His list of academic triumphs, however, does not end here; he gained, in the year of his graduation, the Eldon Law Scholarship, and at the same date was elected a Fellow of Magdalen College.

In this dignified retirement he might, of course, had it so pleased him, have rested on his oars. A college Fellowship has been the rock on which many a promising man has split, by regarding it as the *ultima Thule* of his ambition. Not so our future Lord Chancellor. He must have begun to "eat his dinners" at Lincoln's Inn very soon after he had ceased to do so, in a literal but not a technical sense, in the Hall of Trinity, or sip his wine in the Common Room of Magdalen; for on the 9th of June, 1837, he was called to the Bar, and took his M.A. degree in the same year.

Between the University on the one hand and the Inns and Courts of Law on the other, the difference was little more than one of locality. The tide of success did not ebb, and already any amount of ambition might have been justified as it afterwards was by the event. One cannot help pausing to wonder whether dreams of the archiepiscopal mitre and the woolsack really did cross the minds of Archibald Campbell Tait and Roundell Palmer respectively when they found themselves gazetted to their first classes. Youth is proverbially sanguine; and it would argue no absence of modesty if they were to plead guilty to those pleasant prospects.

Selecting the Chancery Bar as the field for his talents, Roundell Palmer practised there, it seems almost unnecessary to say, with great success. There is about such biographies as these an almost wearisome iteration of this same success, which might even be monotonous, did we not feel sure that it comes, not adventitiously, but as the reward of merit and the result of genuine hard work. He was made Queen's Counsel in 1849, and immediately afterwards Bencher of his Inn. In the year 1848 he had married Lady Laura Waldegrave, second daughter of the eighth Earl Waldegrave, by whom he has since had a family of one son and four daughters.

Parliament, too, had, by a very natural attraction, become the sphere of his ambition, and he entered the House as member for Plymouth at the general election in 1847. His politics were those of a Liberal-Conservative; and he continued to represent the borough until 1852, in which year he was not re-elected; but he regained his seat in 1853, and continued to occupy it until 1857, when he did not again offer himself as a candidate.

In 1861, though not at that time in Parliament, Sir Roundell Palmer (for he was now knighted) was made Solicitor-General in Lord Palmerston's Administration, succeeding Sir William Atherton, who was elevated to the Attorney-Generalship in place of Sir Richard Bethell, advanced, in his turn, to the dignity of Lord Chancellor under the title of Lord Westbury. Sir Roundell was elected member for Richmond; and, in October, 1863, on the death of Sir William Atherton, was appointed to succeed him as Attorney-General. Having advanced to within one step of the highest rank, he received a temporary check in 1866, when he retired with Lord John Russell's second administration. But the halt, as we well know, was only temporary. The impetus had long since been given, and a habit of success engendered which would searcely allow of let or hindrance until the topmost pinnacle of fame should have been reached.

It is very pleasant at this point to turn aside and view, in striking antithesis to these academical laurels and legal or Parliamentary successes, the work we elected just now to put in evidence as to the fact that the boy's early surroundings influenced the grown man. From amid a mass of printed speeches, University calendars, and ponderous law-tomes, we choose

a dainty volume, called the "Book of Praise, from the Best English Hymn-writers, selected and arranged by Roundell Palmer," and recognise how much greater a work was going on within than all those which had resulted in material gain and elevated social position. Yet once again, we consult the published volume of Oxford Prize Poems to see whether, in the young man's earliest lucubrations, we find any index to the line the grown man in his prime would be likely to take. The standard of poetry in "Staffa" is perhaps neither much below nor far above that of the average prize-poem; but the devotional element is very plain and prominent, and points as infallibly to the "Book of Praise" as the Eldon Law Scholarship did to the Attorney-Generalship and the woolsack. In the opening of the poem we read:—

". . . Now 'tis sweet to soar on Rapture's wings,
Beyond the narrow sphere of mortal things,
To read the mystic characters of flame,
Which God's eternal majesty proclaim,
Stamped on His glorious works."

And again, towards the close:-

"And still, while Staffa gems the western wave, While the winds murmur in the pillar'd cave, Still on that holy ground the stranger's prayer Shall seek the Maker of a scene so fair, And rise in fervent thankfulness to bless The Great, the Merciful, whom these confess."

To those who look a little more deeply below the surface of things, it will be interesting to learn that this old influence of home has clung by the subject of our memoir through all that career of progress which forms our narrative so far. He himself speaks of hymnology as "a subject which for several years has occupied part of his leisure hours;" and more pertinently still, after dwelling apologetically on the monotony which some persons might seem to find in such a work, and comparing it with that which, in like manner, pervades Christian art, he says:—"A similar law has always governed, and to this day governs, Christian hymnody, binding together, by the force of a central attraction more powerful than all causes of difference, times ancient and modern, nations of various race and language, Churchmen and Nonconformists, Churches reformed and un-reformed. It is refreshing to turn aside from the divisions of the Christian world, and to rest for a little time in the sense of that inward unity which after all subsists among all good Christians." If such be the utterances of our lay preachers, the more the better, say we, of these "Churchmen out of Holy Orders" whom we have in our midst.

On the return of the Liberal party to power, in 1868, under Mr. Gladstone, Sir Roundell Palmer was offered the Lord Chancellorship: but he could not endorse the policy of the Government on the subject of the Irish Church. Indeed he took the earlier step of separating himself from his chief and his party upon this question while they were in Opposition. The limits of this severance are very clearly laid down in a speech which he made on the subject in the House of Commons, on the 22nd of March, 1869:—"When I look at this Bill," he said, "I cannot conceal from myself that the principle of it is not disestablishment simply in the sense in which I use that term, but disestablishment accompanied by universal disendowment. That is a principle to which I cannot agree. It is advocated as an act of justice; to my mind it is a great act of injustice. It is advocated as likely to have salutary and beneficial consequences; I confess

that I apprehend from it consequences which may tend to destroy the salutary effect of those parts of the measure from which I might otherwise have anticipated good results. It is my duty to inform the House how far I am able to go with the Government on this point of disestablishment. I mean by disestablishment the severance of direct political relations between the institutions of the Church and the laws and government of the State. Taking it in that sense, and carefully separating the question of disendowment from disestablishment, I must say that I cannot agree with those who say that the severance of the political relations of the Church with the State is, and necessarily must be, an abnegation of national Christianity, or an act of national apostacy."

These are the words of a conscientious and consistent politician; and it is interesting to know that their divergence of opinion on this subject, and the consequent preferment beforc him of Sir William Page Wood, did not in the least affect the friendship existing between Sir Roundell Palmer and Mr. Gladstone: and afterwards, when Lord Hatherley was compelled, by a growing malady, to retire, Sir Roundell Palmer was again in a position to compass the highest object of legal ambition, and mounted the woolsack as Lord Selborne. Just as one paused to speculate whether the abiding influence of his earliest home might not account for the tone of the grown man's life and character, so, but more fancifully still, perhaps, one likes to trace a peculiar fitness of things in this particular man taking his title from this particular place. Next to old Izaak Walton's book there is none which breathes such a spirit of calm and tranquillity as Gilbert White's Selborne; and just that quiet chastened tone is what one associates with the character of the peer who takes his title from the secluded Hampshire parish. It was thus the nature-loving penman wrote of it in his humble poetry:—

"See, Selborne spreads her boldest beauties round The varied valley, and the mountain ground, Wildly majestic! what is all the pride Of flats, with load of ornament supplied— Unpleasing, tasteless, impotent expense— Compared with Nature's rudo magnificence!"

Who does not recollect the still more poetical prose picture of the rooks retiring to rest in the deep beechen woods which surround Selborne, and the beautiful illustration appended to it? "We remember," says chatty Gilbert, "a little girl who, as she was going to bed, used to remark, on such an occurrence, in the true spirit of physico-theology, that the rooks were saying their prayers; and yet, he adds, "this child was much too young to be aware that the Scriptures have said of the Deity that 'He feedeth the young ravens who call upon Him!'"

Before, however, taking leave altogether of Sir Roundell Palmer, or merging that title in the now more familiar as well as correct one of Lord Selborne, it is necessary, in passing, to glance at the part which he took in the Geneva Arbitration. In this he consented to act as counsel for Her Majesty's Government; and in May, 1872, Lord Granville quoted his opinion in the House of Lords; and presumably on that opinion was founded the now historic "Countercase" of the British Government in reply to the American "Case." In the actual proceedings of the Arbitration, Sir Roundell Palmer's name does not appear so prominently as that of Sir Alexander Cockburn, the Lord Chief Justice of England, who acted as one of the Arbitrators. There was plenty of hard work, however, for the counsel: four written arguments on the points on which alone they were denied or permitted by the Arbitrators—all of which are printed in the records of the proceedings. It was noticed in a newspaper report of the meeting of this

august tribunal that Sir Alexander Cockburn was the best Frenchman of all those present: his mother having been a Frenchwoman, and he himself born and bred in France, and the Chief Justice's father having been one of the British subjects seized and detained prisoner by Napoleon at the rupture of the Peace of Amiens. Sir Roundell Palmer, added the report, reads French, of course, though he is said not to speak it very readily. But his mission on that occasion was one which did not necessitate speaking so much as action.

Law Reform, besides being an object of ambition to outsiders, had long engaged the attention of lawyers themselves, and even formed the day-dream of successive Lord Chancellors; it was reserved for Lord Selborne, however, to give shape and symmetry to what had been hitherto, in some degree at least, chaotic. Lord Hatherley, his immediate predecessor, had taken a comprehensive instead of a partial view of this great measure. He felt that a complete scheme, amounting to an entire re-modelling of the Law Courts, was more likely to win popular support than anything which could possibly be brought under the category of "tinkering" legislation. He it was who prepared public opinion, both within and without the House of Lords, for the changes which he saw to be inevitable.

On what proved the fatal day of the introduction into the Lower House of the ill-fated Irish University Bill, Lord Selborne brought his Judicature Bill before the House of Lords; and the opening of his speech is exceedingly interesting at this time, as giving us, in embryo, that which has now arrived at maturity, and become an accomplished fact. The Judicature Act introduced in 1875 became law the same year, while he was still in office; and no substantial alteration has since been made in it, except as to the Appellate Jurisdiction.

Having pointed out the anomalies in the existing system, and the gradual advance of public opinion on the matter, Lord Selborne thus divided the details of his subject:-"Taking stock," he said, "by the light which we have acquired during the last six years, I think I may say that there are four points which have become settled points in the minds of those who best understand the subject, as well as in the mind of the public. The first relates to the artificial separation of legal and equitable jurisdictions, such as never did exist, and does not exist, in any other country in the world except our own and those who have borrowed our system. artificial distinction is not only unsatisfactory in itself, but is productive of the greatest possible inconvenience and obstruction to the administration of justice in its actual results. been a conviction that, whatever else may be done, we ought to put the finishing stroke to measures of a more partial character, which have already been adopted in the same direction, by bringing law and equity—two ideas, not artificial, but real—into one administration in the Superior Courts of this realm. The second point is that we must bring together our many divided courts and divided jurisdictions by erecting-or rather re-erecting, for, after all, there was in the beginning of our constitutional system one supreme court of justice-a Supreme Court, which, operating under convenient arrangements, and with a sufficient number of judges, shall exercise one single undivided jurisdiction, and shall unite within itself all the separate Superior Courts of Law and Equity now in existence. The third point is, that it is desirable to provide, as far as possible, for cheapness, simplicity, and uniformity of procedure. The fourth, that it is necessary to improve the constitution of the Courts of Appeal."

Without following the Bill through its varying fortunes, which would lead us too far from the proper subject of our biography, suffice it to say that the only real protest against the measure came from a quarter where it might not have been wholly unexpected, namely, the Equity Bar, nearly all the members of which, it was naïvely remarked, "publicly expressed their alarm

at an arrangement by which the Court of Chancery was apparently deprived of its controlling power, and converted into one of four co-ordinate tribunals." Abuses die proverbially hard; and though one would speak no harsh words of the dead, the Court of Chancery, as then constituted, had grown to merit the objurgation. As regards its former and objectionable existence, it is gone; thanks to Lord Selborne.

A kindred question—indeed a branch of this same question—was that of the Supreme Appellate Jurisdiction, as to which the legislation of 1873 was altered after the change of Ministry in the following year; though of this alteration the Conservative Government were not themselves the original authors. On the 11th of June, 1874, Lord Selborne made a powerful speech in the House of Lords on Lord Redesdale's motion for retaining the jurisdiction of the peers in this respect. He argued that it would not be for the interests of the Upper House, after the question had been so often debated and considered, after every attempt for so many years to apply a remedy for the better hearing of appeals had turned out fruitless, and after the Lords, in a manner which reflected the highest credit upon them, had voluntarily made a concession of one of their ancient privileges in the interest, as they believed, of justice, to endeayour to grasp back what they had voluntarily relinquished, and thus throw their powers and privileges into the political arena as matters of party contention. Nothing, in his opinion, could be more unwise or disastrous. He was convinced, he said, that their lordships would be influenced only by what they considered best for the interests of justice; and, in his judgment, that consideration should lead them to adopt the proposition of his noble and learned friend on the woolsack. There was something quite pathetic in the terms used by Lord Selborne to signify a measure so thoroughly his own; and it is pleasant to know that Lord Cairns, in dealing with it, had made, on the score of friendship with its originator, concessions which he might have been slow to adopt had the proposal come from any other quarter.

Another of the objects of Lord Selborne's life has been one which is not yet carried out, namely, the establishment of a Legal University. His speech, delivered in the House of Commons in 1871, when he sat as member for Richmond, deals trenchantly with the lack of technical education for legal practitioners. No doubt the desideratum is a real one. The future lawyer can no more acquire practical skill by office routine, whether supervening upon a University course or not, than a medical man can qualify for actual practice by mere study in a surgery, without clinical experience. In support of this project, he then quoted a resolution of the Benchers of Lincoln's Inn (his own inn), amongst others, approved so long ago as 1863, when, upon the motion of Lord (then Sir Hugh) Cairns, it was laid down that "in the opinion of this Bench the creation of a Legal University, to which the various Inns of Court might be affiliated, and through which legal degrees might be conferred and discipline exercised, would be desirable." Whether a project which bears such strong recommendation of common sense will be realised, yet remains to be seen. Should it do so, it will stand, as a kind of annexe, side by side with the Judicature Act, as an emanation from the fertile mind of Lord Selborne. His lordship's idiosyncrasy seems to be the application of non-legal and untechnical methods to the solution of legal problems. Just as, at the Reformation, theology became exoteric instead of esoteric-and even medical men are beginning to deem prescriptions possible in plain English instead of dog-Latin-so the tendency of Lord Selborne's measures has been essentially to strip law of its archaic character, and, without making "every man his own lawyer," to simplify the administration of justice, yet simultaneously to discourage unnecessary litigation.

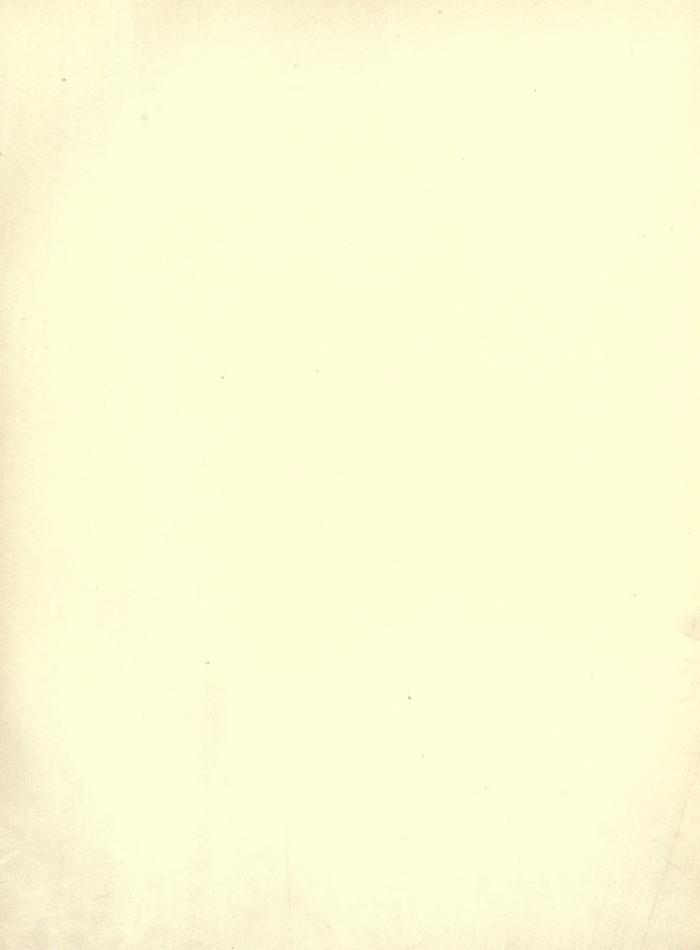
Finally, Lord Selborne's part in the debate on the Public Worship Regulation Bill was

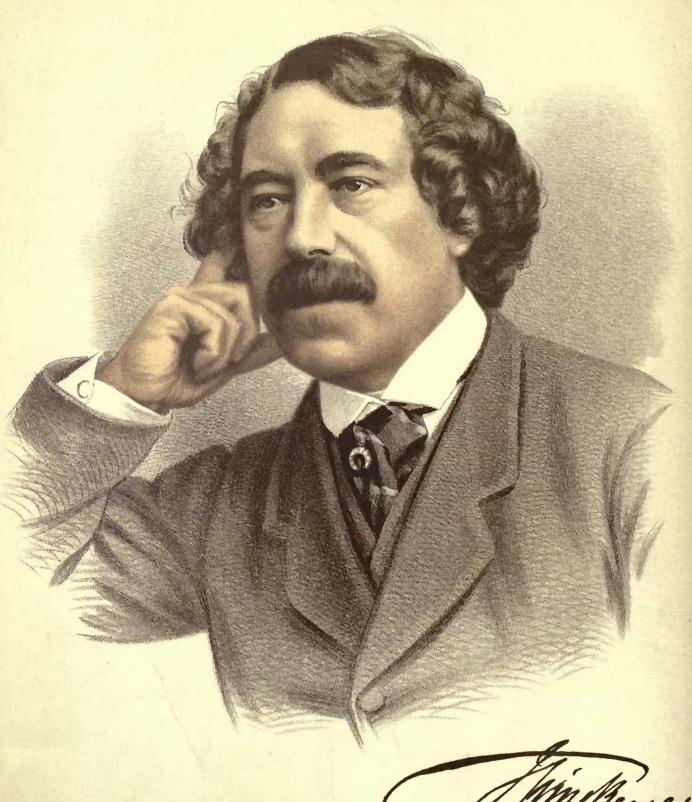
singularly characteristic. Simplicity and the avoidance of strife seemed to be the objects at which he aimed. While approving of the measure in the main, he desired to give the provisions of the Act a less litigious character than they wore, and to endue with validity a "monition" issued directly by the bishop. His amendment was opposed by the Lord Chancellor, and did not find favour in committee.

We may fitly set down as the characteristics of Lord Selborne's personnel, kindliness, benevolence, and all that is comprised in the capitis reverentia cani. His oratory is subdued, simple, and impressive, strongly reminding one of Virgil's exquisite simile:—

"As when in tumults rise the ignoble crowd,
Mad are their motions, and their tongues are loud;
And stones and brands in rattling volleys fly,
And all the rustic arms that fury can supply.
If then some grave and pious man appear,
They hush their noise, and lend a listening ear;
He soothes with sober words their angry mood,
And quenches their innate desire of blood."—DRYDEN.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by the London Stereoscopic Company.]





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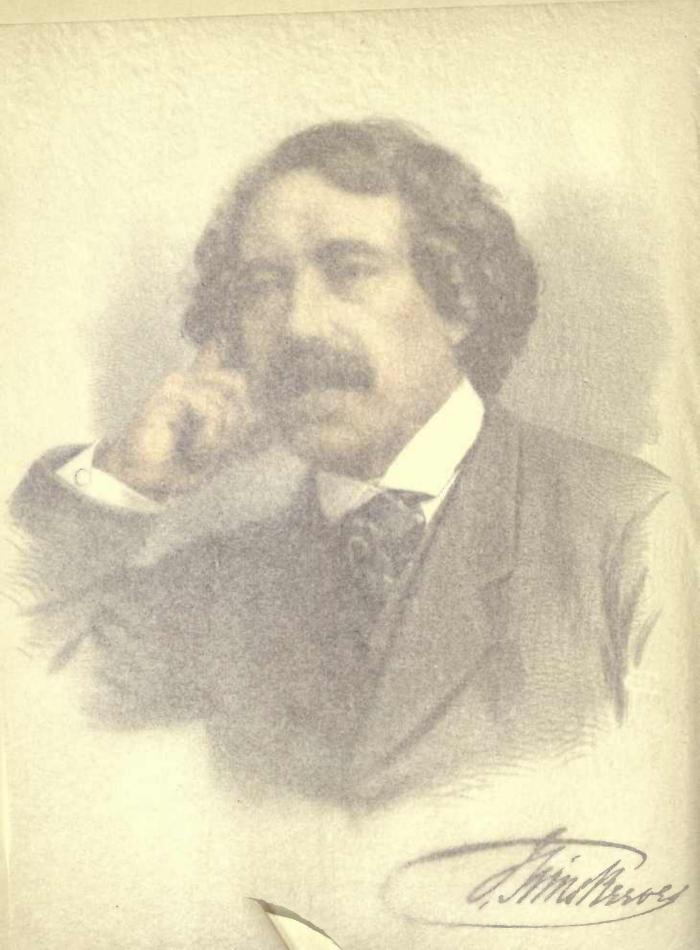
SIMS REEVES.

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that London is his native place; and there are other statements, equally far from the truth, which have gained more or less credence from the fact that they have been "seen in print."

John Sims Reeves was born at Shooter's Hill, in Kent, on October 21st, 1822. Showing a great aptitude for music in his earliest years, his father, himself a musician of no mean ability, fostered and encouraged him in every way, so that the natural genius he possessed might not die for lack of nurture. This provident care, acting upon a mind willing and able to receive, had so good an effect, that at a very tender age the future tenor had already mastered the mechanical difficulties of several musical instruments, string as well as wind, besides making himself acquainted with the less interesting but no less valuable study of theory. The beauty of his voice as a child won for him many wealthy and powerful friends, who supplemented the aid his father could offer by furnishing masters to instruct him in various educational matters, musical as well as ordinary. These friends in return were accustomed to invite their acquaintances to listen to the performance of their prodigy, which even in those early days was held to be something extraordinary. The instinct of dramatic fervour was to be traced in his singing, and all who remember him in those far-away days speak with enthusiasm of the startling effect he was wont to produce in the delivery of a composition of his own, the words of which began-"Room for the proud, ye sons of clay."

When his voice broke, or changed from "a childish treble" to a more manly quality, he redoubled his study of the organ, and before he was fourteen years of age he had acquired sufficient skill to qualify him for the post of organist of North Cray Church. The importance of this position for one so young was fully felt by none so much as by him who held it, and all spare time was earefully spent in earnest and assiduous study, in order that he might maintain the position in which he was placed with dignity to himself and honour to those who had recognised his budding talent. But a change was to come "o'er the spirit of his dream." In enforcing the precepts to the choir under his charge a certain amount of practical example became necessary, and in giving these examples young Reeves discovered that he had a voice. His father and other experienced friends found also that that voice was of a fine character and Probably because he feared to trust his own judgment, or because he thought that needful instruction for the training and development of the voice would be better regarded when imparted by a stranger—one whose position was calculated to command respect—the father of young Reeves placed him under a teacher of singing, who was so far mistaken in his judgment of the character and quality of his young pupil's voice, that he treated it as a baritone, and gave him exercises calculated to be of advantage to a voice of that compass and register.

The strong love for things dramatic induced him to resign his post as organist, and in due course to make his first essay as a vocalist. When he was scarcely eighteen years of age, he made his first bow before an audience. The Theatre Royal at Newcastle was the scene of his débût, and here, as at one or two other theatres in that circuit, he played such parts as the Count Rodolpho, in Bellini's opera "La Sonnambula," and Dandini, in Rossini's "Cenerentola"—parts for a bass or baritone voice—with marked success. The versatility of his talent was even at that period shown by the variety of characters he was called upon to assume in the course of his theatrical career. In Scotland, in Ireland, on the Norwich Circuit, in the West of England, and every place where he appeared, he inspired his audience with a strong sense of his value as a singer.

Wherever he went, the same power was to be observed in his performance, the peculiar quality of his voice always finding responsive echoes in the hearts of his hearers. content with his singing, and many took every opportunity of hearing him; his influence was fully acknowledged; yet such is the peculiarity of the public mind that it never occurred to any to consider that there was the promise of greatness in him, although the effect his singing had over the popular mind was great and extensive. While he vet sang as a baritone he introduced a song, "The Flaunting Flag of Liberty," which had an extraordinary popularity. Every one who sang the song imitated his style, either directly or indirectly: directly from hearing him sing, and moved by a desire to reproduce his "effects" by the use of such mannerism as may then have existed; and indirectly, from a second-hand imitation of an imitation. Even now, when the song is sung-and as it is more or less of a national character, it still lives in remote circles—the method of delivering certain words with a special emphasis points to an origin far out of the reach of the mind of the amateur who may be singing, and is therefore traceable to a superior intellect. But intellect and intelligence in a new singer. are qualities which the public is slow to appreciate at their true and just value. This apathy of taste is not perceptible in reference to other arts. If any one writes a new and original book, his work is sought after and valued, and the position of the author is at once determined in the world of literature; if the verses of a poet possess that indefinite quality spoken of as "the true ring," there is, generally, no question about recognition; an artist, if he paints an original picture, "wakes up one morning to find himself famous;" and a new play often fills the theatre at which it is produced immediately it is announced. But this is not the case either with a genuine musical artist or with an entirely new musical production. In spite of an undoubted liking for, in spite of an extensive patronage of, music. there is a torpidity in taste which is often productive of a great amount of harm. Many artists, conscious of inherent power, have impatiently relinquished a profession in which, if they had been content to persevere, they would have been regarded in time as bright ornaments. A chill reception has blighted their hopes, as a May frost kills tender buds. A little reflection would have shown them that though the public is slow to make favourites, it is undoubtedly tenacious of retaining them when made.

For a considerable time did Sims Reeves sing without being recognised as belonging either to the great or even as among the promising artists in his profession. His audiences were satisfied with him, and nothing more. They were content with his performances, as they probably were with those of many another singer or player who contributed to their amusement. Their minds had not been guided into the belief that he possessed gifts and powers beyond the ordinary run. If Sims Reeves had not even in those distant days fully believed in himself, if he had not conquered the frequent desire to abandon a profession in the exercise of which he met with so little profitable encouragement, the loss to English art would have been irreparable. The trials and troubles of those early days helped to purify the mind and to expand and strengthen the powers of the artist.

In reflecting upon the incidents of such a career there is always the consoling comfort of feeling that, however keen and bitter the disappointments may have been at the time, subsequent events show how

"Sweet are the uses of adversity, Which, like the toad, ngly and venomous, Wears yet a precions jewel in his head."

An engagement in London is the goal towards which the ambition of every artist tends, Those who have won a certain amount of provincial fame aspire to have the verdict of a country jury confirmed. This High Court of Appeal, if it may be so termed, is the one to which many still desire to refer their claims, and for this purpose did young Reeves go to London. The fact that all the important posts were occupied did not daunt the rising singer. Artistlike he knew that it was necessary to serve in order to learn how to command, and he was therefore content to begin at the bottom and to win his way fairly to the top of the ladder At the Grecian Theatre—where many an afterwards-great artist, theatrical as well as musical, served at the outset of his career—Sims Reeves made his appearance, under the nom de théâtre of "Mr. Johnson." The locality was sufficiently near London to give its artists the title to be included in the list of metropolitan performers. The proprietor of the theatre at which he was engaged made a special feature of the performance of the lighter comic opera. Here from time to time were produced the smaller works of Auber, Boieldieu, Adam, 'Hérold, Halévy, Paer, and in later days of Ambroise Thomas, performed by a staff of vocalists of no mean ability, all things considered. At a period when there was only one opera house in London, when the taste for music was sparsely cultivated, the persistent efforts of this wise old manager to keep alive a liking for this species of musical entertainment brought him both fame and fortune. He was not, however, extraordinarily liberal in his payments; and when any talented performer, feeling that his abilities were worth a higher remuneration than that which he received, asked, like Oliver Twist, for more, it generally resulted in a severance of the counection. When many of those with whom he had parted company afterwards became famous elsewhere, he was wont to attribute a good measure of their success to the training which he declared they had had in his establishment. Applying a manufacturing term in reference to the subject, he boasted-"We've turned a good many of 'em out from here, sir"-an expression which was true in more senses than one.

. Sims Reeves was not of the disposition-

"To be borne down and broken By the currents of misfortune,"

even though the manager failed to recognise his talent, but on the contrary he made this, as he did each step, the means of advance. He started upon his artistic career with a special determination to be the best of the class to which his qualifications might assign him. However bitter may have been the constant trials to which he was to be subjected, and from which no one, more especially those who select music as a profession, can escape, he never once lost sight of that which may fairly be called the guiding principle of his life. When, therefore, it is found that the next move made is one towards a higher grade, the fact that he was "true to himself" is made the more patent.

To be associated with the company at Drury Lane Theatre, at any time, is a distinctive professional honour. It is more particularly so when the period of connection afterwards becomes historical. This was the case now. Mr. Macready became lessee of Drury Lane Theatre, and among other things he produced Handel's "Serenata" or "Mask," "Acis and Galatea," for it is called by both titles in the copies published in the composer's own lifetime.

The experiment made by Mr. Macready formed a new era in theatrical representations. Scenery was improved and made artistic; costumes were made the subject of special antiquarian study, and attention to the smallest technical detail was as carefully given as to the most

elaborate. In order to secure this attention the manager took care to surround himself with people of intelligence in every department. Hence the name of "Mr. J. Reeves" at the head of the representatives of the Sicilian Shepherds. The position was a comparatively inferior one, but it was an important one also, for, true to the plan determined upon, it may be taken as certain that its duties were discharged in a conscientious and spirited manner. Purcell's "King Arthur" was produced under the same management later in the season—namely, on November 16th, 1842—when the young singer had only just completed his twentieth year, and he was selected to sing the solo at the end of the first act. Reeves was the leader of a band of bold Britons, who, expressing their joy for victory, sing this song of triumph:—

"'Come, if you dare, our trumpets sound."

When Macready superintended the final rehearsals, he took exception to the position young Reeves placed himself in, in order to make his voice tell better upon the audience. The situation, according to the manager, required all the warriors to be looking back upon the scene they were supposed to have just quitted, consequently their backs were to the audience. Reeves insisted upon turning half round, and Macready, who knew nothing of music, and cared about as much for it, would have the singer deliver his song to the scenes, and Reeves threw up the part rather than sacrifice what he considered to be a truer artistic effect. In vain they endeavoured to find a substitute. Reeves was recalled, but the manager exercised his despotic authority by fining him five pounds, the whole of his week's salary, for a breach of what he called discipline. This circumstance did not cause the enthusiastic young artist to relax his exertions, and each night during the first week he literally electrified the house with his thrilling utterances, for which he was rewarded solely by the applause of the house.

One curious incident connected with this performance is worthy of note from its almost romantic character. A gentleman, an amateur in music, and a member of a musical society which afterwards became powerful and important, happened to be at the theatre on the first night when young Reeves sang Purcell's soul-stirring song. On the second he determined to be present again, to renew the pleasure he had experienced. He procured a box at the theatre, and called upon some friends to ask them to share the treat. "Come," said he, "put on your bonnets, and hear a man sing who will be the finest tenor in the world." The ladies, well skilled in music, readily and eagerly consented, and all went to the theatre. One of the ladies of the party, at that time a student in music, was Miss Lucombe, who afterwards became the wife of the subject of this sketch.

The success gained upon this particular occasion seems to have been turned to profit by Reeves, for he went to Paris, and took lessons of Bordogni in the art of singing. This eminent musician was in his early day a primo tenore, and in that capacity was engaged at the Théâtre Italien in the year 1819. His voice was never great in volume, but his singing was always distinguished by grace and refinement. He also possessed the rare art of imparting his principles of vocalisation to his pupils in the happiest manner. He developed the already existing natural ability of Sims Reeves to some extent; but the future great singer, anxious to make the utmost of his talents, went on to Milan, always noted for the skill of the vocal teachers therein residing. He selected the famous teacher, composer, and journalist, Alberto Mazzucato, as his instructor, and before he left Milan, made his appearance at La Scala, in the part of Edgardo, in the opera of "Lucia di Lammermoor." This was in the year 1845. Never did a tenor achieve such prompt and brilliant success. Applause and praise greeted him

on all sides in terms highly flattering and encouraging to a young artist at what may fairly be called the outset of his career. He had served a long and arduous apprenticeship to his art. His time was ont, he was now his own master, and those who were judges pronounced him to be a master also of his art, well skilled and highly gifted. The world was before him now; the goal towards which he had laboured so long, and in the face of so many disappointments and trials. was within his reach. The summit of his ambition was attained, the prediction of his excellence was fulfilled, and he was now "the finest tenor in the world." In the various theatres in Italy in which he sang, his reception was always brilliant and cordial. His desire to obtain a favourable verdict from his own countrymen induced him to turn homewards. With this design he accepted an engagement at Drury Lane Theatre, at that time under the management of Jullien, who, having won for himself a position as conductor of a series of Promenade Concerts, essayed the more onerous task of directing a season of operatic performances. On the 6th of December, 1847, Sims Reeves made his first appearance as Edgardo, in "Lucia di Lammermoor," the same part in which he had previously made a brilliant reputation at La Scala, in Milan, and at other Italian theatres. His artistic success was enormous. He was at once accepted as the English artist par excellence. The beauty and volume of his voice, the perfection of his style, the accuracy of his delivery, and the purity of his pronunciation, were alike declared to be faultless. But while his voice and method of singing were fully admired, his acting and knowledge of stage business excited the liveliest astonishment. "Here is a young man," says one critic, "who to all the charm of youth, and the advantage of a graceful figure, in addition to his having a voice of the most superb quality and extensive compass, unites a method of vocalisation which is in itself a model; besides which he possesses the most accurate knowledge of acting, guided by a correct appreciation of the spirit of the subject. Is not this man—hitherto unknown, and from his evident youth without much experience—is not this man in possession of all the attributes of genius? If not, what is genius?"

Two months after his appearance at Drury Lane—namely, on February 10th, 1848—Sims Reeves made his first appearance at Exeter Hall in oratorio, in a series conducted by Mr. John Hullah, the musician to whose foresight and earnest and consistent labours the present advance of musical taste in England is greatly owing. The appearance of Sims Reeves under Mr. Hullah's bâton was in the oratorio "Judas Maccabæus." His success in oratorio singing was no less extraordinary than it had been in opera. The thrilling declamation with which he uttered the several warlike songs, especially "Sound an Alarm," was something entirely new to an English Many of those present on the occasion were old enough to have remembered the triumphs of former tenor singers; indeed, one of the most famous, John Braham, was still living; but this young man brought with him qualities which in some sort combined all the excellences of each with a marked individuality of his own—the expressive delicacy of Vaughan, the manliness of Incledon, the vocal freedom of Sapio, and the vigour of Braham. These peculiarities, with a freshness and power of voice all his own, were those which the andiences of the time credited the new vocalist with possessing. He became at once the idol of the Wherever and whenever his name was announced, the place was crowded with eager admirers. It was, however, even at the outset of his prosperity, not always that Sims Reeves could gratify the public by appearing to fulfil his engagement. The mechanism of the glorious voice he possessed was liable to be affected by the constant variations of temperature prevalent in a British climate, and the artist, knowing too well upon what frail tenure a growing reputation is held, frequently preferred pecuniary loss to making an appearance with his voice in an unsatisfactory condition. More than once those who attended a concert, in the hope of enjoying the pleasure his singing always gives, did not feel certain of hearing their favourite until he actually appeared before them. When he did, his performance was an ample reward for all the trouble and anxiety experienced by those who came to hear him. His constant desire was not to disappoint the public needlessly, but the sensitive character of his voice often placed the fulfilment of his desire completely beyond his power. Few men worked harder, more conscientiously, or more diligently than he, even when the crown of fame was, so to speak, upon his brow. In everything he undertook he was greater than other men, and everywhere his progress was marked by a series of artistic triumphs.

In the spring of 1849 he had fulfilled a very successful engagement in Dublin, opera in English being the entertainment for which he was engaged. The Theatre Royal at which he had been playing was to be the seene, on the night following the end of the English season, of the return of Miss Catherine Hayes, who had been absent from her native land for seven years. The opera selected for her rentrée was "Lucia di Lammermoor," the work which had already been so frequently associated with the career of Sims Reeves. It was to be given in Italian, and the Edgardo was Signor Pagliere, whose "ludierous inefficiency provoked shouts of laughter." "Mr. Sims Reeves, who, with Mr. Whitworth, Miss Lucombe, and an English opera company, had terminated an engagement on the day of Miss Hayes' coming, occupied a private box, and was soon discovered Shouts of 'Reeves!' arose from every part of the house. by the audience. lessee, Mr. Caleraft, on this came forward and intimated that he had no control over Mr. Reeves, whose engagement had terminated, and who, on being asked to sing on this emergency, had positively declined. Mr. Reeves from his box said, 'Ladies and gentlemen, I will sing to oblige you, but not to oblige Mr. Caleraft.' After the delay of dressing, &c., the curtain again rose, and the opera proceeded, Mr. Reeves performing Edgardo better than on any former occasion in this city, and Miss Hayes nerving herself so fully for her task that no trace of tremulousness, no shadow of the agitating seene through which she had passed, marred the beauty of her singing and acting. At the termination of each act they were both called before the curtain; and again, when the opera was concluded, their presence was again and again demanded, amid the most furious waving, not only of hats and handkerchiefs, but of canes and umbrellas." In the autumn of the same year he appeared, for the first time, at the Birmingham Festival.

After a short concert tour in the north of England, under the direction of Mr. Howard Glover, Sims Reeves reappeared in Italian opera at Covent Garden, on the 18th of October, 1849, as Elvino, in "La Sonnambula"—simply to repeat a former triumph. In the winter of the same year his services were secured for a series of English operatic performances, and in 1850 he accepted a new engagement at Her Majesty's Opera, then under the management of Mr. Lumley, singing in "Ernani" and in "Lucia di Lammermoor." Two years previously he was at the same theatre, and appeared as Carlo in "Linda di Chamouni," his singing surpassing in power and effect that of the most famous among the Italian tenori. His artistic sensibilities were, however, wounded in consequence of the part of Edgardo—his own special part—having been given to another singer. He felt he could not remain in the theatre after such a slight, and he threw up his engagement. The breach thus caused between the manager and himself was in time healed, and Sims Reeves consented to enter into a new engagement. Madame Sontag had during this same season returned to the stage, and Miss Catherine Hayes, the young Irish prima donna, was also a member of the company.

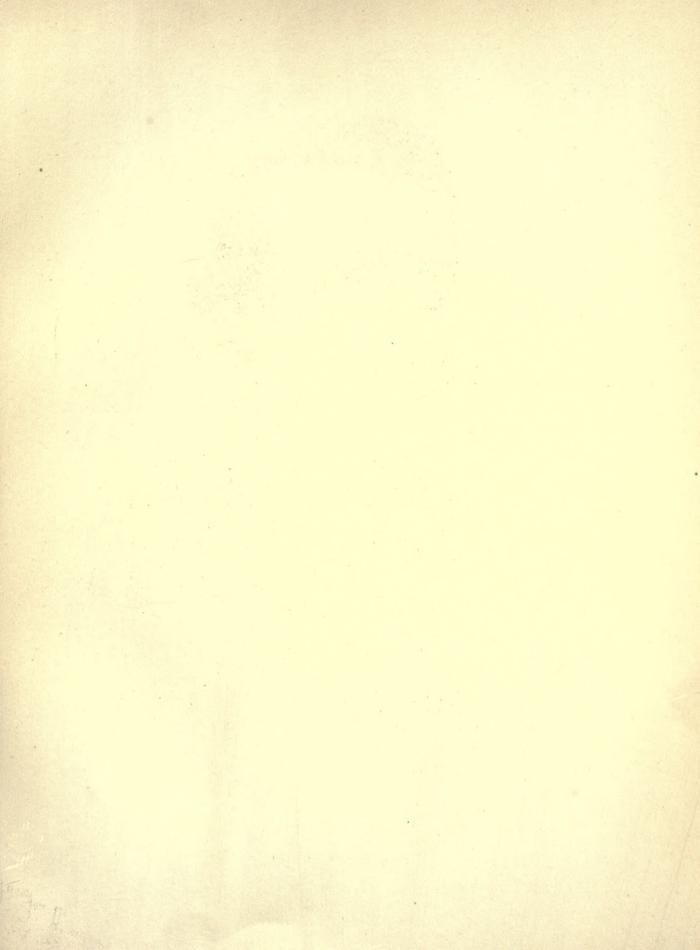
In the year of the first great Exhibition (1851) he accepted a short engagement in Paris, at

the Théatre Italien, in conjunction with Madame Sontag and Mdlle. Sophie Cruvelli, who appeared with him in the opera "Ernani." He was received with the greatest enthusiasm by the Parisians.

For a long period after this he has contented himself and his hearers with his performances at concerts and representations of oratorios, rarely appearing at all in opera, unless the smaller ballad-operas, such as "The Waterman," "Guy Mannering," "The Beggar's Opera," be reckoned. At the Sacred Harmonic Society of London, and at the concerts of kindred provincial associations, he has sung frequently. The festivals of the three choirs, Gloucester, Hereford, and Worcester, have owed a considerable degree of their success, pecuniary as well as artistic, to his presence; and the impression he has created by his singing at the triennial Handel Festivals at the Crystal Palace at Sydenham can never be effaced.

The power and influence which an artist enjoys are, of course, in direct proportion to the measure of his popularity. In one instance this has been exercised by Mr. Reeves with good, and, it is hoped, with growing effect. For a considerable number of years the pitch to which instruments are tuned has been gradually growing higher, so that within the present century the sound now given to a note has been raised a tone, at least, higher than that formerly given and accepted as the same denominated pitch. This alteration is adopted only in England, and the disadvantage of the singularity is manifest. Sims Reeves is a determined opponent to this peculiar system. Some few years ago the controversy on the subject revived in consequence of his opposition, and although concession was ultimately made when the diapason normal, the French pitch, was adopted at the opera, the concession has not at present been sufficiently extensively used to be of permanent effect.

The career of Sims Reeves as an artist is full of interest; the yearnings of the youth and the aspirations of the man may be traced step by step in the story of his life. These steps leading to eminence have not been taken lightly nor hastily, but with all deliberation and forethought as was possible, in order that at each new position a feeling of security and certainty might be experienced.



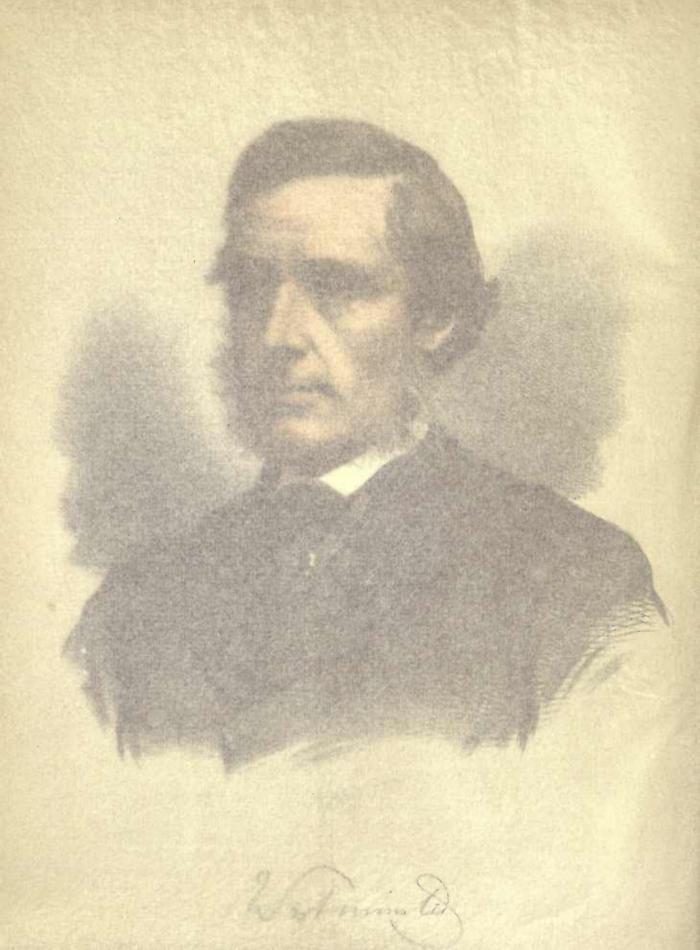


Washminster)

THE DUKE OF WESTMINSTER.

66 ROS VENEUR" was the high official rank of a De Aquila who, being near of kin to T Dake William of Normandy, came in the train of that victorious invader to help in founding a new sovereignty in Great Britain. Ancestors of the Conqueror for many generations had been of the De Aquila race, and both William himself and his Gros Veneur ("chief huntsman") -or, as we should say, "Master of the Hounds," an office which in divers times has been hereditary-were nephews of a certain scion of that stock, by name Hugh Lupus, on whom the Norman King of England, inverting the regular process of "nepotism," hastened to confer the title and estates of Earl of Chester. Virtus, non stemma-"Worth, not lineage"-is the motto of the present Hugh Lupus, Duke of Westminster; but His Grace may boast one of the proudest genealogies in Europe. He is descended from knights and barons who held in awe great tracts of country a century and a half before the Norman planted foot on our soil. But he is also a nobleman fitted by disposition, habits, and acquirements for the part he has been called upon to fill in modern national life. That he maintains close relations with territory which has throughout many ages been identified with his family name and records, is an addition of dignity, not a groundwork of honour. Still the fact is worth noting, as somewhat rare, even in the oldest chapters of the peerage. The first territorial possession held in England by remote ancestors of the Duke of Westminster was in the county of Chester; and here the family tree still holds firm root, and flourishes. His Grace is Lieutenant-Colonel commanding the Cheshire Yeomanry ("Earl of Chester's"); he sat in the House of Commons for Chester, in the Liberal interest, from 1847 till he succeeded his father as Marquis of Westminster in 1869; and one of his residences is Eaton Hall, Chester-Eaton being a name which was allied that of Grosvenor in the days of the Plantagenets. The Duke of Westminster, who was born on the 13th of October, 1825, was educated at Eton and Baliol College, Oxford, he a magistrate both for Middlesex and Cheshire; and he is patron of eleven livings. His Grace takes great and active interest in the well-being of the Volunteers; and is colonel of the 22nd Middlesex, or "Queen's Westminster," Rifle Corps. He hunts with Mr. Corbett's (the Cheshire) and other hounds in the neighbourhood of Eaton Hall; and his portrait, "in pink," was painted by Millais, and exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1874. The Duke's residences, besides this in the county of Chester, are Halkin, in Flintshire; Cliveden, near Maidenhead; and Grosvenor House, London.

Notwithstanding a man's superiority to, or independence of, his ancestry, this is a matter which cannot be wholly dissevered from him. We have noticed that the Conqueror had an uncle named Hugh Lupus, whom he aggrandised after that decisive battle from the date of which English history, if it cannot quite be said to have begun, took a start more important than any beginning. Gilbert le Gros Veneur, Dake William's cousin, must be regarded as the head



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and founder of the English Grosvenor line, which produced many valiant knights. This fact is well avouched in chronicles relating to a famous controversy in the reign of Richard II. between Sir Richard Scrope and Sir Robert Grosvenor, touching the latter's claim to bear certain coat-armour, supposed by Scrope to be peculiarly his own. The cause was tried in a court of which little is authentically known—the Court of Chivalry. We speak now of chivalry as an abstraction, a quality or attribute of gentle natures; and it is all but impossible for us to realise the actual condition of any one "in chivaelrie"—that is, having served a sort of apprenticeship in knighthood. Of chivalry—as an institution, that is to say—our knowledge and ideas are very imperfect. But we know that it had laws that were binding in the letter as well as in the spirit; as, indeed, these very circumstances of a court and a trial sufficiently show. In that cause between Sir Richard Scrope and Sir Robert Grosvenor, one of the witnesses was Geoffrey Chaucer, the day-star of English poetry. Let us recall for an instant his thoroughly characteristic description of that great figure in mediæval life-the knight, in the "Canterbury Tales." Quite different from all fancy portraits of romantic fiction was this "worthy man" portrayed by the poet, through the mouth of another of his characters, Harry Baily, the host and guide of the pilgrims. He did not make any display in his person or dress; he rode a good horse, but that was for real service, not show; nor was he himself gay to look at, as some riders of good horses desire to be. His cassock of fustian was marked by his hauberk, for he had gone straight on his pilgrimage on returning from the Crusades without making any change in his attire.

"And though that he was warthy he was wys,
And of his port as meke as is a mayde,
He never yit no vilanye ne sayde,
In all his lif, unto no manner wight,
He was a verray perfight gentil knight."

Chaucer did not come, be it observed, as a poet or sentimentalist to give his evidence in the Court of Chivalry against Sir Robert Grosvenor, or, rather, let us say in behoof of Sir Richard Scrope. His testimony was pure matter of fact, of such facts as were even commonplace in his time. He was, as Mr. Matthew Browne reminds us in the learned and ingenious work, "Chaucer's England," a soldier, and a man of affairs. That he was also something of a herald may be safely assumed; and his testimony on this weighty question of a knight's claim to some bright particular cognisance must have been given quite unimaginatively, from knowledge gained by the witness in his experience as a soldier, a clerk, a herald, and a practical He certainly came before the court in honourable company, for among the witnesses on the side of Scrope were Edmund of Langley, Duke of York, uncle of the king; John of Gaunt, King of Castile and Leon, and Duke of Lancaster; Sir John Holland, afterwards Duke of Exeter; the Earls of Derby and Arundel; Percy, the old Earl of Northumberland; and Hotspur, his famous son. This notable gathering was opposed by a very powerful array of evidence on the part of Grosvenor, albeit the individual names, with one exception, are not so prominent in history. They were those of all the most influential knights and gentlemen of Cheshire and Lancashire, such as the Stanleys, Vernons, Leycesters, Traffords, Leghs, Holfords, Davenports, and Mainwarings, with sundry abbots, who deposed that the shield in question had belonged from time immemorial to the Grosvenor family; more particularly that it had been borne in battle by Gilbert Grosvenor at the Conquest, by Raufe Grosvenor at Lincoln, by Robert Grosvenor in the Crusades under Richard II., and

by another Robert Grosvenor at Cressy, and, indeed, in all the wars of Edward III. Sir Robert's one witness whose name was destined to become historically famous was Owen Glendower. himself a Grosvenor. The weight of evidence was almost equal; but ultimately the court decided for Scrope. Perhaps the Lord High Constable, who presided at the trial, and who was not only Scrope's companion in arms, but one of his personal friends, leaned somewhat favourably towards the side of the powerful warrior-statesman. In doing so, however, he took good care to acknowledge that strong presumptive evidence had been adduced for Sir Robert Grosvenor's defence of his claim. The escutcheon in dispute, "Azure a bend, or," had been carried by the Grosvenors in many fights, and by Sir Robert himself, as harbinger to Sir Thomas d'Audley. lientenant of the Black Prince, at Blank in Berry; at the capture of the Tower of Brose; at the siege of Rocksinon; in Poitou; in Guienne; at the battles of Poictiers, Najarra, and Limoges: and otherwhere. In the pleadings, the defendant was always styled "Nobilis vir. Robertus Grosvenor, miles," though it invariably pleased his opponents to affect an entire ignorance of his name-which piece of contemptuous vexation was duly retaliated by the Grosvenors on the Scropes. In deciding the point at issue in favour of the plaintiff, Sir Richard Scrope, the court graciously conceded to the defendant permission to bear the same arms, "within a plain bordure, argent." But Sir Robert, scorning to accept the arms with "a difference," made direct appeal to the king. Now Richard was even more strongly disposed to uphold Scrope's claim than had been the Lord High Constable; and the Royal sentence, often quoted since by heralds as a precedent and authority, declared that "a bordure is not a sufficient difference between two strangers in the same kingdom, but only between cousin and cousin related by blood," in short, that a mark of cadency is distinct from a mark of difference. So the defeated gentleman gave up the "bend," and took in its place a "garb," or wheat-sheaf, retaining. however, his colour, azure and gold. It is curious to note that this heraldic dispute had, in feudal days, an issue of real importance, inasmuch as the cause has gained a place in history as "The Grosvenor Peerage." Coat-armour was indeed the true patent of nobility. Grosvenor, mentioned above, married a Chester heiress, Joan Eton, or Eaton, as the name is now spelt. In the first year of King Henry VIII., Richard Grosvenor married Catherine Cotton, and his successor, Thomas Grosvenor, of Eaton, in the twentieth year of the same king's reign, married Maud, daughter of Sir William Pole. The heir of that marriage espoused a daughter of Roger Bradshaigh. The next successor, Richard, served as High Bailiff in 1602, and married Christian, daughter of Sir Richard Brooks. Their son was created a baronet in 1622, and was noted for his Royalist principles and fidelity. One of the Grosvenors, indeed, figures in the list of the thirteen gentlemen nominated knights of the Royal Oak in 1660, an order subsequently abandoned, lest it might beget animosities. Sir Thomas Grosvenor, the eighth Baronet, was made first Baron Grosvenor of Eaton, in 1761, he being the twentieth in descent from Gilbert. Afterwards Lord Grosvenor was advanced successively to the dignities of Viscount Belgrave and Earl Grosvenor. In 1831, Robert, second Earl, was created Marquis of Westminster. He married Lady Eleanor Egerton, only daughter and heir of Thomas, first Earl of Wilton, whose title descended to her second son by the Marquis. In 1845, Richard, Earl Grosvenor, the eldest son, succeeded to the marquisate, he having married Lady Elizabeth Mary Leveson-Gower, second daughter of George Granville, first Duke of Sutherland. The offspring of that marriage was Hugh Lupus, now Duke of Westminster, together with five other sons and seven daughters, a number considerably thinned by death. The Marquis of Westminster was raised to the dukedom of the same name, at the beginning of the year 1874, on the occasion of

the resignation of the Gladstone Ministry. This elevation of rank was met with approval by all ranks of society, and by persons of different shades of politics. It was, moreover, a graceful suggestion on the part of Mr. Gladstone, showing that he acknowledged the great benefit which he had derived from the support and influence of the Marquis whilst a member of both Houses of Parliament, and that no arrière-pensée was dormant in his mind touching Lord Grosvenor's opposition to the Reform Bill in 1866. The Corporation of Chester presented an address on the occasion, which succinctly summarises the qualities which render His Grace so popular among all classes :-- "While the citizens of Chester naturally regard your Grace more especially in regard to themselves, they most fully recognise the services rendered by your Grace the Duke of Westminster to the nation at large; as a munificent patron of arts and sciences; as Colonel of the Earl of Chester's Yeomanry Cavalry; as a leader and promoter of the national reserve army of Volunteers; as a considerate, liberal, and enlightened landlord; as a lover and encourager of timehonoured and manly sports; and as a noble type of an English gentleman." The encouragement of national sports alluded to above has been well exemplified by His Grace's more personal and energetic support of the Turf. Accessions like this to the racing community go far to check that unbridled spirit of speculation and questionable conduct which have of late years cast such opprobrium on the racing world, in spite of the example of sportsmen like the late Earls of Derby and Zetland. His Grace, who was created a Knight of the Garter in 1871, was married in 1852 to Lady Constance Leveson-Gower, fourth daughter of the second Duke of Sutherland. and has five sons and three daughters. His eldest son was wedded, in 1874, to Lady Sibell Lumley, daughter of the Earl of Scarbrough; and his eldest daughter, in 1876, to the Marquis. of Ormonde. The Dowager-Marchioness of Westminster is living, and her daughters have by marriage allied the Grosvenor family with the ducal house of Northumberland, the earldom of Macclesfield, and the baronies of Wenlock and Leigh. The Duke's surviving brother is Lord Richard de Aquila Grosvenor, member of Parliament for Flint, and a Privy Councillor.

To say that the Duke of Westminster is in the very centre of the best society is to assert a fact which is not only incontrovertible, but which can have its full value and significance only for those who have a proper sense of what the best society should be. There have been, perhaps are, men of equally high estate, whom no honest unsycophantic plebeian would care to look at twice. A representative of the true aristocracy, this nobleman presents a very agreeable contrast to the Clotens of his princely order, who, even in the presence of their parasites and grooms, "cannot derogate." There are lords and lords; dukes and dukes; but there is only one order of gentlemen, and in that the Duke of Westminster stands an unsullied and prominent example. He is truly a "leader," which is the literal meaning a philologue would attach to his title of duke. In matters of art, he may justly be called an English de' Medici, and no small portion of his princely revenue is expended in the furtherance and encouragement of the highest efforts of design. The pictures at Grosvenor House, which are known to every art councisseur, form a priceless and historical collection, and those who care to gain critical suggestion and valuable knowledge on the subject may do well to read the essay written by Hazlitt, in a bygone generation, on works that still remain upon the same walls with little alteration of arrangement, though many additions have been made. The original collection was commenced about 1755 by Richard, Lord Grosvenor, at Millbank House, which stood in Westminster, having been built by Charles Mordaunt, Earl of Peterborough, in 1720, and which is now pulled down. In 1806, the family removed to Grosvenor House; and in the same year Robert, first Marquis, at that time Earl Grosvenor, added the collection of Mr. Ellis Agar. A catalogue of these important paintings has been printed for private use; and from it are here

selected the titles and descriptions of a few conspicuously remarkable works. Two of the seven landscapes by Claude in the Dining-room, an evening and morning pair, are probably the pictures which were sold in the collection of Blondel de Gagny, in 1776, for 24,000 franes, or nearly £1,000 sterling. When in the Agar collection they were celebrated throughout Europe, and a foreign collector offered £8,000 for them. Concerning another of the Claudes in this room, a landscape unusually full of figures, a story both curious and authentic is told. The subject is the Biblical incident of the Israelites worshipping the golden calf, in a rich country through which a broad river flows. Sir Peter Lely, then the great court painter in the English capital, commissioned Claude Gelée, also called Lorraine, to paint for him the landscape only, saying that he (Lely) intended to put in the figures himself. Not relishing this idea, Claude painted the picture as we see it, and sent it to Lely, telling him he might keep it or not, as he chose. Sir Peter's judgment being on this occasion sharper even than his vanity, the work of the great French painter was not sent back. Hogarth's famous picture of the "Distressed Poet," in the same room, keeps excellent company with works representative of the great Flemish and Dutch masters, whom the sturdy English genius affected to despise.

The Saloon, which is next entered by the visitor, contains, among many other precious works, Murillo's favourite subject, a "St. John with the Lamb," very similar to the great Spanish artist's work in the National Gallery. Paul Potter's "Landscape," a view of a dairy-farm near the Hague, with its adjoining meadows, on a hot afternoon, is likewise here. This picture, which is signed and dated 1647, when Paul Potter was twenty-two, somewhat resembles one by the same master in Lord Ashburton's gallery. On entering the small Drawing-room, the visitor is immediately struck with the full-length portrait of Master Buthall, the famous "Blue Boy" of Gainsborough, painted by that great artist on purpose to controvert the opinion of Sir Joshua Reynolds, that a prevalence of blue in any picture was incompatible with good effect. On the opposite wall of the same apartment hangs the magnificent portrait of Mrs. Siddons, as the Tragic Muse, by Sir Joshua Reynolds. It was painted in 1784, when the great actress was twenty-eight years of age; and it was bought by the first Marquis of Westminster at Mr. Watson Taylor's sale in 1822 for 1,760 guineas, a high price, even for such a work, half a century ago. In the large Drawing-room are fine examples of Raphael, Titian, Guido, Paul Veronese, Giovanni Bellini, Andrea Sacchi, Gaspar Poussin, and J. M. W. Turner.

The Rubens Room is entirely devoted to three great works, belonging to a series of nine which were painted by order of Philip IV. in 1629, when Rubens was in Spain. The king presented them to his Minister, the Duke of Olivarez, for the decoration of a Carmelite convent which had just been completed at the small town of Loeches, near Madrid. Seven of the nine compositions, which were all painted on an enormous scale, and with commensurate breadth of effect—as being intended for a refectory or other spacious hall, and not for a chamber of ordinary dimensions—were taken away from the convent by the French in 1808. The other two still remain in possession of the Carmelites. While the seven canvases, cut from their frames, were being borne off, the wagon which held them broke down, and was turned over into a muddy ditch. One was seriously injured, but was repaired; two others were presented to the French Commandant at Loeches; and the remaining four were purchased by M. de Bourke, Danish Minister at the Court of Madrid, who brought them to England, and sold them, in 1818, to the first Marquis of Westminster. Three only are in this magnificent saloon, and they fairly occupy all the wall-space it affords.

It may here be mentioned that during a portion of every day of the months of August and September, 1875—with the object principally of enabling the working classes to view these art-treasures—the galleries of Grosvenor House were generously thrown open by His Grace, and

cards of admission were sent to the heads of large establishments for distribution amongst those who were engaged in art-industry, or were interested in artistic matters generally. At first the privilege granted by the Duke was not taken advantage of so extensively as had been anticipated. and the working-class was but feebly represented; but when the system of obtaining tickets was more widely known, the applications became very numerous. The experiment may be regarded as highly successful, for the Duke of Westminster's invitation was accepted by exactly the class for which admission had been intended. The attendance of visitors was appreciative and wellbehaved; and though nearly ten thousand persons went through the galleries during the two months that they were open, no damage whatever was inflicted on the rooms or the works of art which they contained. Pictures like these represent a fortune in themselves; and such collections are only possible for those to whom the interest of their investments is a matter of no consideration. To some, indeed, it may seem that an exhibition like this is but the result of an accumulative mania, or even an ostentatious display of wealth; but to the thousands who are imbued with the real spirit of art, and who feel their own lives made happier and better by the sympathetic touch of master-minds, a privilege like that accorded by the Duke is a boon which is eagerly welcomed, and which reconciles the feelings of those who are not so liberally blessed with this world's goods with the inevitable superiority of wealth and influence. Thoughtfulness and concession on the part of the few will always tend to remove bitterness and jealousy on the part of the many; and it is chiefly ill-used wealth and sensual self-enjoyment which stir up the rancour of those who feel the pangs of poverty. It is to be hoped that the example of the Duke of Westminster will be followed by others who are in a position to give pleasure to their less fortunate countrymen. Grosvenor House is besides often lent by the Duke for concerts in aid of charitable objects, and no genuine appeal is ever made to him in vain. In June, 1876, the Duke, hearing that a children's flower-show was to be held in the parish of St. George's, Hanover Square, kindly offered the grounds of Grosvenor House for the display, and took a most lively interest in the proceedings, whilst Her Grace the Duchess was good enough to distribute the prizes. In all the parochial work and improvement of the portion of London in which he resides, from which such a large portion of his revenue is drawn, the Duke shows that he is alive to the responsibilities of his position, and displays a laudable anxiety to aid by money and influence the various institutions which have so rapidly increased in number for the aid and relief of our morally and physically destitute classes.

In the extension and beautifying of Eaton Hall, or rather in the replacement of the old house by a magnificent palace, the Duke of Westminster has for some years given employment to a large army of artificers. Piece by piece, the hall which his grandfather built has been taken down, and the noble edifice which has, in the past eight years, been gradually rising communicates by a corridor with a small and exquisitely appointed dwelling-house occupied by the family. The palace is being munificently endowed by the Duke with all the worthiest of modern art-work. Mr. H. S. Marks, R.A., has been engaged in painting two long panels, each thirty feet long, with the congenial subject of the Canterbury Pilgrims—the figures being nearly life-size—and Mr. John O'Connor, the landscape-painter, taking for the model of his work Stanfield's decoration of the Duchess of Sutherland's boudoir at Trentham, has undertaken the similar adornment of the Duchess of Westminster's room at Eaton. Here the daughter will be reminded of scenes bound up in her earliest remembrance. Trentham, Cliveden, Dunrobin, and other picturesque domains will surround her in this stately home. In front of the palace, Mr. Watts, R.A., has been commissioned to place a statue of Hugh Lupus, the first

Earl of Chester; and connected with the smaller residence is a beautifully ornamented chapel, having a clock-tower of great height. The stables will not be left without appropriate embellishment: Bochm's grand piece of sculpture, representing in heroic size a thoroughbred horse, will adorn this department; and even a laundry has given material for invention and the exercise of charming taste. Nor is the Duke of Westminster careful in making Eaton itself a paradise: his whole surrounding estate shows the same noble bent; and every cottage is a gem.

As a politican, the Duke, while he was Earl Grosvenor, showed more than once an independence of thought and action which for the time estranged him from the great Liberal party to whom he is bound by sympathy and tradition. The most memorable instance of what has been called his disaffection is referable to the session of 1866, the occasion being the debate on the Reform Bill introduced by Mr. Gladstone. With Mr. Lowe, who dared to incur the odium of the "freemen" by imputing to them, as an impulsive, unreflecting, violent class, venality, ignorance, drunkenness, and other habits and qualities incompatible with a worthy exercise of the franchise; with Mr. Horsman, in speaking of whom Mr. Bright used that Biblical metaphor which rapidly spread through the country—"He retired into what may be called his political cave of Adullam, to which he invited every one who was in distress, and every one who was discontented;" with Lord Elcho-whose house, it may be mentioned, was the "cave" where the Adullamites met-and a few other members, Earl Grosvenor opposed that measure which, in Mr. Gladstone's view, was calculated to beget in the people of England new attachment to the constitution, to increase their respect for the throne and the laws under which they live, and thus to augment the strength, the glory, and the safety of the land. In supporting the Bill, Mr. Bright himself said of it, "If I had been a Minister, it is not the Bill which I should have consented to present to the House. I think it is not adequate to the occasion, and that its concessions are not sufficient. But I know the difficulties under which the Ministers labour, and I know the disinclination of Parliament to do much in the direction of this question. I shall give it my support because, as far as it goes, it is a simple and honest measure, and because I believe if it becomes law it will give some solidity and duration to everything that is good in the constitution, and to everything that is noble in the character of the people of these realms."

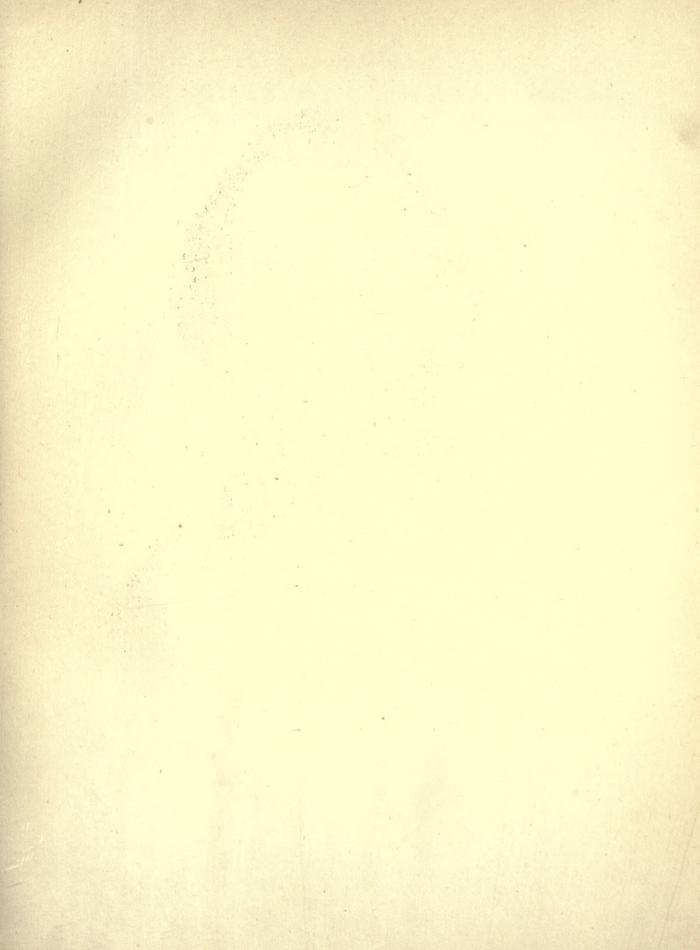
On the second reading, Earl Grosvenor moved as an amendment, "That this House, while ready to consider with a view to its settlement the question of Parliamentary Reform, is of opinion that it is inexpedient to discuss a Bill for the reduction of the franchise in England and Wales until the House has before it the entire scheme contemplated by Government for the amendment of the representation of the people." This motion, which found a seconder in Lord Stanley, was treated by the Government as a vote of want of confidence, and seven nights of animated debating passed away before that final meeting which decided the fate of the Bill. The division was among the largest, if it was not, indeed, the very largest, that ever took place within the walls of the House of Commons. For the Government, 318 Liberals and 2 Conservatives voted; against, 282 Conservatives and 33 Liberals; and there was one pair, Messrs, Roebuck and Only nine members absented themselves, six being of the Liberal party; and in every case absence was excused by illness. There were at the time eleven vacant seats; so that the number short of a full House was no more than twenty. The scene at the division was one that will never be forgotten by people who witnessed it. At the announcement, "Strangers must withdraw," the members rose to their feet, and making their way to the lobbies, slowly filtered through the wickets, and were numbered by the tellers. The ayes gathered

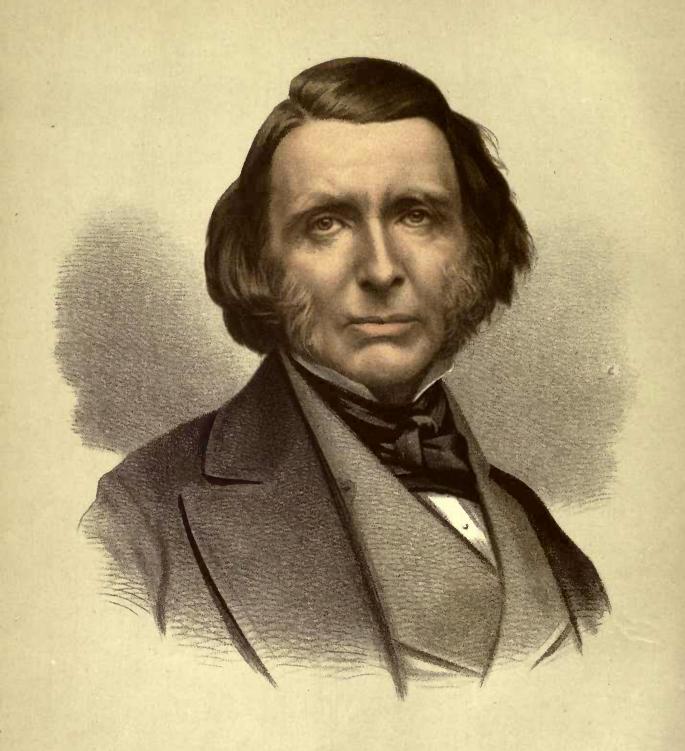
in crowds at the bar, and the noes behind the chair of the Speaker; but gradually members found their way back to their seats. In about twenty minutes a strange electric-like excitement began to manifest itself. Mr. Walpole passed along the front Opposition bench, and whispered to Mr. Disraeli the word "six." It was eagerly caught up and whispered along the Opposition benches: but it was generally believed to be only a guess at the probable Ministerial majority. Mr. Brand then made his appearance; and the ominous figures, 313, flew from mouth to mouth, as the number of the Opposition. It was larger than the Government had feared or their opponents had hoped. The royal princes leaned forward from their inconvenient standing-place; the very officers of the House participated in the universal excitement, and had no eyes or ears for any breach of order. The tellers, Mr. Brand, Mr. Adam, Lord Stanley, and Earl Grosvenor, bow and walk up the floor, and again make due obeisance to the chair. Then Mr. Brand reads out the figures from a paper; and immediately arises a wild raging shout from floor to gallery. Carried away by the enthusiasm of the moment, the "Adullamites" cheer with the Tory Opposition. Mr. Lowe, taking off his hat, waves it in wide circles triumphantly over the heads of his own party-men against whom he has for ouce taken action. When silence is restored, Mr. Gladstone calmly and simply says, "Sir, I propose to fix the Committee for Monday; and I will then state the order of business." The great scene is ended; and it is broad daylight when the members pour forth into the fresh air of New Palace Yard.

It is not probable that the Duke of Westminster looks back with regret to his course of political action in 1866. It brought him for a season much obloquy from the Liberals, in whose cause he has at other important junctures exerted his great personal influence; but he, like others who felt it their duty to oppose a measure they could not conscientiously approve, has outlived the passionate rebukes of party. It is now rather in social than political movements that the Duke takes active interest; and the city of Westminster, from which he takes his title and draws the greater part of his immense wealth—which increases year by year as rents fall in—recognises in him an enlightened reformer of old abuses, and a willing and able promoter of improvements beneficial to all classes of the community.

[The Portrait frefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by Mr. Samuel A. Walker, 64, Margaret Street.

Cavendish Square, W.]





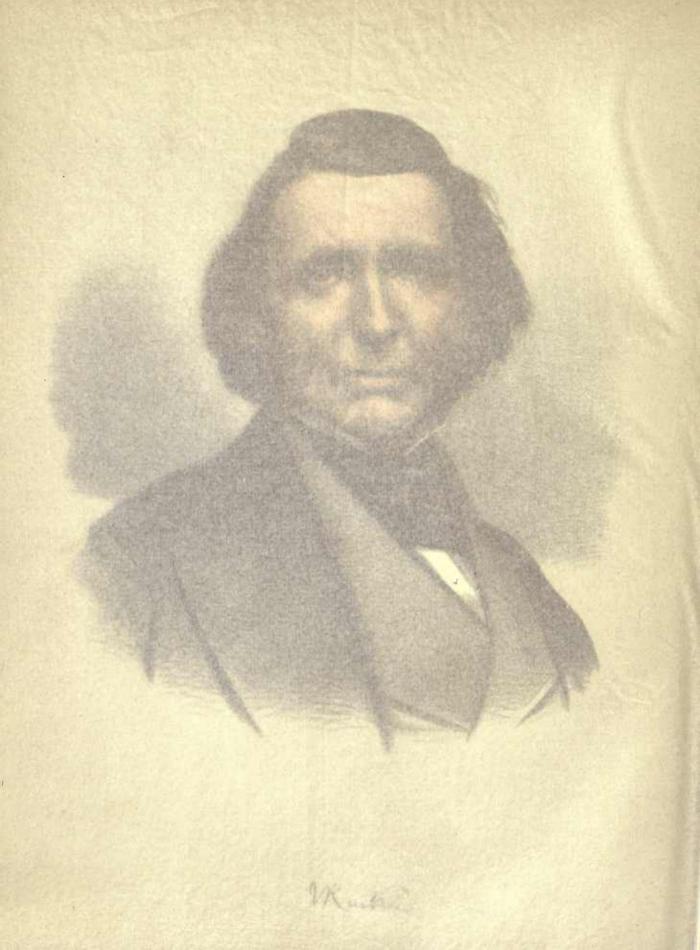
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JOHN RUSKIN.

THE name of this distinguished writer is inseparably associated with an important movement in British art. The opinions and labours of a new school of artists, which completely overturned the old traditions, received in him a defender and interpreter; and but for his trenchant pen, it is not too much to say that the works of that band of enthusiasts known as the Pre-Raphaelites would never have attained the fame and the universal recognition which they now enjoy. He was not the absolute founder of the new school, for it sprang into being through the fellowship of three celebrated artists—Holman Hunt, Millais, and Rossetti; and it was the last-named of the three who suggested the title by which the whole brotherhood is now indicated. But Mr. Ruskin was by far the most eloquent expounder of the principles animating these seceders from the antique, who were determined to follow nature with all the ardour of their imaginative spirits. The new ideas were combated with energy by the supporters of the older school, and England soon rang with the discussion, which was evoked chiefly by Mr. Ruskin's letters to the Times and his pamphlet entitled "Pre-Raphaelitism."

The subject of this biographical notice is the son of a London merchant, and he was born in the metropolis in the year 1819, so that, notwithstanding the voluminousness of his writings, he may be described still as a comparatively young man, or at least not beyond his prime. He was educated as a gentleman commoner at Christ Church, Oxford, and at the age of twenty rears took the Newdigate prize for poetry. He subsequently devoted himself to art, which he died under Copley Fielding, and J. D. Harding. His works abundantly testify that he is not a critic, but possesses the true artist's eye, and can wield the pencil and brush successfully. He does not, however, appear to have at any time in his career exhibited any elaborate works of his own production. He was appointed Rede's Lecturer at Cambridge in 1867, and Slade the fine Arts at Oxford in 1869. The Senate of Cambridge University conferred the degree of L.L.D. upon him in 1867, in consideration of his conspicuous services to art, and to mark their sense of his numerous literary achievements.

The first brockere by which Mr. Ruskin challenged the attention of the public was a pamphlet in defence of Turner and the modern English school of landscape-painting. This pamphlet was the germ of perhaps his most important work—for which, indeed, it supplied the original idea. Although many intelligent critics thought that Mr. Ruskin carried his worship of Turner too far, it was well that the merits of this undeniably great artist should receive a wider attention than they had hitherto enjoyed. The only real appreciators of Turner some thirty years ago were the Earl of Egrement, Mr. Munro, and a few other munificent patrons of art; but these connoisseurs were even at that period fully convinced of the artist's transcendent merits, and were engaged in collecting his works—both paintings and drawings—with considerable ardour. Mr. Ruskin, therefore, can scarcely be described as the "discoverer" of Turner, though that



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The first brochure by which Mr. Ruskin challenged the attention of the public was a pamphlet in defence of Turner and the modern English school of landscape-painting. This pamphlet was the germ of perhaps his most important work—for which, indeed, it supplied the original idea. Although many intelligent critics thought that Mr. Ruskin carried his worship of Turner too far, it was well that the merits of this undeniably great artist should receive a wider attention than they had hitherto enjoyed. The only real appreciators of Turner some thirty years ago were the Earl of Egremont, Mr. Munro, and a few other munificent patrons of art; but these connoisseurs were even at that period fully convinced of the artist's transcendent merits, and were engaged in collecting his works—both paintings and drawings—with considerable ardour. Mr. Ruskin, therefore, can scarcely be described as the "discoverer" of Turner, though that

enthusiasm which is so marked a characteristic of the critic did much towards extending the circle of his admirers. Even at this early stage in his career, Mr. Ruskin, in order to place his art idols upon the loftiest pedestals, ruthlessly tore down others which had been the wonder of ares. It is, indeed, generally admitted that he scarcely dealt out justice to some great names, while upon others he lavished unbounded eulogies. For example, Raphael was summarily dethroned to make room for the deification of Tintoretto. So great was Mr. Ruskin's admiration of Turner, that he did not hesitate to award him in art the same position that the world unanimously concedes to Shakespeare in poetry. This, we venture to think, was an aberration of enthusiasm. and if it be true that in his later years—as we have heard it affirmed—Mr. Ruskin's views have considerably modified in regard to Turner, this is some justification for the strictures passed upon his opinions when they were first so eloquently expressed. By the marvellous works left behind him, Turner has shown that he was possessed of the very highest capabilities, but to compare him adequately with Shakespeare we should require a fulness and completeness of labour which he never exhibited. That he was capable of attaining any height in art is universally accepted; but as we know him now, he is an experimentalist, though unquestionably the most magnificent of all experimentalists.

After spending many years in the various European capitals, studying painting and architecture, and becoming familiar with the works of the greatest Continental masters, Mr. Ruskin wrote his second volume of "Modern Painters." The first volume of this celebrated work, which is generally regarded as Mr. Ruskin's chef d'auvre, dealt more fully with the subjects touched upon in his first pamphlet; while the second, in still pursuing the original idea, took a more comprehensive survey of the subject, and included the works of the great Italian painters, whose merits he earefully discussed. "Modern Painters" was completed in five volumes, their publication extending from the year 1843 down to 1860. Despite all the faults which may be alleged against this work, it is a splendid evidence of the literary and artistic powers of Mr. Ruskin. No such work on art had ever seen the light before, nor has In his preface to the fifth volume, the author says:—"In the main aim and principle of the book there is no variation from its first syllable to its last. It declares the perfectness and eternal beauty of the work of God, and tests all work of man by concurrence with, or subjection to that. And it differs from most books, and has a chance of being in some respects better for the difference, that it has not been written either for fame, or for money, or for conscience' sake, but of necessity." As the volumes successively appeared, they were assailed with great bitterness by art critics of the old school, who, while not denying the almost matchless eloquence with which the new ideas were expounded, combated Mr. Ruskin's principles with great vigour. One of these critics thus expressed himself at the close of an article in the Edinburgh Review on the appearance of the third volume of "Modern Painters:"-"We have already bestowed on this volume more space than its merits deserve, but its gross and glaring extravagances and defects constitute a strong claim to notice. It is the worst book of a bad series of books, mischievous to art, mischievous to literature, but mischievous above all to those young and eager minds, animated by the love of art and of literature, which may mistake this declamatory trash for substantial or stimulating food. We are the less disposed to acquit Mr. Ruskin, because he is not altogether without faculties which might have made him a useful and an elegant writer. His style, when it is not too inflated, is generally perspicuous, and sometimes forcible; his perceptions are acute; he is not devoid of industry, or even of taste. But all these qualities are perverted and destroyed by the entire absence of

masculine judgment, by the failure of the logical faculty, and by a strange propensity to mistake the illusions of his own fancy or his own vanity for the laws of reality and the principles of truth." Another critical journal, speaking with still greater asperity, declared that "if all charm of poetry and description were discharged from Mr. Ruskin's writings, and they had to depend merely upon their logic, they would not keep out of the dust-hole a week." These writers, possibly afraid of the triumphs of a new school of art, attacked Mr. Ruskin with the same weapons by which they affirmed he had assailed the defenders of the ancient school. "Modern Painters" is a nobly suggestive work. Its criticism may be at fault according to the varying stand-point of the reader, but it is imbued with a reverence for nature, a passionate love of art, and the desire to spread amongst men an appreciation of the beautiful and the good. We may at times regard the judgments of the writer as eccentric, but he has touched the hills and valleys of art with a golden glow.

We are only able to record the principal works of Mr. Ruskin, as the mass of brochures which he has published would almost exhaust our space in their simple cnumeration. "The Seven Lamps of Architecture," another of his leading works, appeared in 1849. Mr. Ruskin here deals with seven cardinal laws, and shows that an earnest study of, and obedience to them, are essential to the architect; but its interest is by no means exhausted by its value in this respect. It was succeeded in 1851 by "The Stones of Venice," one of the richest offshoots of the author's mind. Never before had the marvellous city of the southern seas so eloquent an expositor. Every page is instinct with local colour; to those who have never visited the city the book has all the charm of a revelation, while those who have can live over their experience in its pages with all the appearance of reality. Had his genius remained previously unknown, this work would at once have lifted Mr. Ruskin into the front rank of thinkers and writers. Art, nature, and religion each have an earnest devotee, and his enthusiasm is such as to communicate itself to the reader. The book belongs to that order which elevates and purifies humanity.

To "The Stones of Venice" succeeded "Examples of the Architecture of Venice," selected and drawn to measurement from the edifices. This appeared in the year 1851, and was to have comprised twelve parts, but only three appeared. It was followed by "Pre-Raphaelitism," published in the same year, which in its turn was closely succeeded by "The King of the Golden River." Then came "Notes on the Construction of Sheep-folds," which did not altogether bear out its title, at least to the ordinary apprehension, seeing that much of the volume was devoted, not to sheep-folds in the concrete, but to a discussion of church doctrine and discipline. The opening of the Crystal Palace afforded Mr. Ruskin another opportunity for placing before the British public his original, but not altogether popular, views upon art, and after this work came "Lectures on Painting and Architecture," issued in 1854. A good deal of controversy was caused by our author's "Notes on Pictures in the Royal Academy," issued in 1856-an experiment which was repeated with several succeeding exhibitions; and he also published "Notes on the Turner Gallery at Marlborough House." We almost toil after this prolific writer in vain; but at least the titles of subsequent notable works must be indicated, or the most important of them; and these are: - "The Political Economy of Art," "The Elements of Drawing," "The Elements of Perspective," "The Two Paths," being lectures on art and its application to decoration and manufacture; "Unto this Last: Four Essays on the First Principles of Political Economy;" "Sesame and Lilies," four lectures delivered at Manchester; "The Ethics of the Dust: Ten Lectures to Little Housewives on the Elements of Crystallisation;" "Illustrative Text to Turner's Harbours of England;" and "The Crown of Wild Olive: Three Lectures on

Work, Traffic, and War. This great art critic's views upon the subject to which his whole life has been devoted have at various periods been expounded also both in essays and lectures. "The Cestus of Aglaia," appeared in the Art Journal, and he has also written for numerous other periodicals. For the Arundel Society, of which he is a member, he wrote in 1855, "Giotto and his Works in Padua," and thirty years ago he contributed articles to the Quarterly Review on Lord Lindsay's "Christian Art." Mr. Ruskin has also appeared upon the public platform, notably in the year 1853, when he lectured in Edinburgh upon Gothic architecture. He is, we may mention, the literary executor of his late friend, J. M. W. Turner, R.A.

What is Pre-Raphaelitism—the cause of which Mr. Ruskin has made himself the champion? Is it really a creation, pure and simple, of the last quarter of a century, or have artists been unconsciously striving after it intermittently during the past four hundred years? Its cardinal principle has fortunately been formulated for us by Mr. Ruskin himself in the following words :- "Pre-Raphaelitism has but one principle, that of absolute uncompromising truth in all that it does, obtained by working everything, down to the most minute detail, from nature, and from nature only. Or, where imagination is necessarily trusted to, by always endcavouring to conceive a fact as it really was likely to have happened, rather than as it most prettily might have happened. Every Pre-Raphaelite landscape background is painted, to the last touch, in the open air, from the thing itself. Every Pre-Raphaelite figure, however studied in expression, is a true portrait of some living person. Every minute accessory is painted in the same manner. This is the main Pre-Raphaelite principle." But accepting Mr. Ruskin's statement of his own principle, it is obviously impossible for the most illustrious disciple of the school to thoroughly carry it out. Even Turner himself, grand and glorious as he was in his effects, must have been thrown back upon his imagination on many occasions, for Nature is so rapid and evanescent in her changes that no pencil can follow her with sufficient exactitude. It therefore becomes a question of degree, how far an artist is capable of following Nature, and the majority of men would agree that one of the conceptions of Murillo-an artist whom Mr. Ruskin thoroughly despises—is worth more than all the tiled pavements which a Pre-Raphaelite might copy from actual fact, even though he faithfully reproduced every constituent tile in such pavement. There were artists devoted to the study of nature long before we heard of the Pre-Raphaelites, just as there were dramatists like Sophocles and Euripides before Shakespeare. It seems to us that largely upon the same principle upon which Mr. Ruskin defends the Pre-Raphaelites for their minute devotion to detail, we might defend the claims of Crabbe and such like poets against Dante and Milton. Of nature in the sense of Mr. Ruskin these great poets have very little, whereas Crabbe, in his homely language, is pleasantly garrulous of the people whom he has met in the village, and can tell you the exact character of the clothing which they wore. What we are taught by Pre-Raphaelitism to believe is, that there is no truth but literalism, and Mr. Ruskin is its prophet. But with all due deference, there is a wonderful difference between the literalism of a Turner and the literalism even of a Millais. Were the former now living, he would cast off from him the trammels by which Mr. Ruskin has sought to enclose a school which has now attained great fame. Notwithstanding its celebrity, the new school has failed to cast out the Beelzebuh of the antique, and will fail to do so to the end. There are those who hold that though the elder school of artists are not without their faults, the new school have attempted to cast out the mote which distorted their vision while the beam remains within their own. The probability is that the two schools will continue to flourish side by side. Wherever genius exhibits itself-whether it be in accord or in dissonance with the principles enunciated by Mr. Ruskin—it will continue to be recognised to the end of the world's history. Mr. Ruskin bitterly attacked the late Mr. Maclise and other distinguished artists for defects of detail which jarred against his sense of exactness and propriety, and yet these artists, in all the great qualities of truth in arrangement, accurate form, and natural colour, were superior to all the Pre-Raphaelites, with the exception of Mr. Holman Hunt.

Mr. Ruskin, however, did not go without recognition in many influential quarters, though he excited so much animosity in others. Fraser's Magazine, in discussing his merits many vears ago, observed:-" Unquestionably one of the most remarkable men of this-may we not say of any?—age is Mr. Ruskin. He is, if you like, not seldom dogmatic, self-contradictory, eoneeited, arrogant, and absurd; but he is a great and wonderful writer. He has created a new literature—the literature of art. In the fulfilment of his glorious mission, Mr. Ruskin has been assisted by a style singularly clear, rich, and powerful. Every inventor of a new philosophy has in some sort to invent a new vocabulary, and Mr. Ruskin's perfect command of a language surpassing all others, dead or living, except Greek, has enabled him to do this with extraordinary success." The Westminster Review, writing at this same period, viz., the period of John Stuart Mill and other contributors, was equally complimentary. But Mr. Ruskin happened to have a quarrel with the great authority upon literature in Edinburgh-Blackwood—and it was in the pages of this Northern serial that he met, perhaps, with his severest chastisement. "Mr. Ruskin," said a writer in Maga, "has been before the world for some years as the most voluminous, the most confident, and the most dogmatic of art critics, He has astonished his readers no less by his platitudes than by his paradoxes. There is nothing more painful in Mr. Ruskin's writings than the total want of reverence for things human or divine that pervades them. The triumphs of ancient art, from which successive ages have drunk deep draughts of inspiration, are to him nothing but stumbling-blocks in a dark valley of ruin. Mystery and unintelligibility have in all ages been the grand resource of those who have wished to impose upon the gullibility of the world, and to pass for being wiser than their neighbours. Quacks religious, quacks moral, quacks political, quacks literary, have resorted to them no less than quaeks legal; and nowhere will they be found in greater abundance than in the ponderous tomes with which, year after year, Mr. Ruskin burdens our groaning tables." This judgment, it is but fair to Mr. Ruskin to state, was not endorsed by most of the enlightened Tories of the time; and Sir Archibald Alison, by no means an insignificant judge upon the matters affecting Mr. Ruskin's special field of study, referred to his great and varied genius and taste in the most eulogistic language.

The cause which Mr. Ruskin so eagerly and eloquently espoused no doubt suffered from what we may call his over-advocacy; and this, we think, could be easily established from his writings. His language was too often the language of hyperbole and extravagance. Besides defying all the supporters of art as it had existed for centuries, he made the most sweeping statements, which after all could be regarded only as utterances upon matters of opinion. He ventured to proclaim on one occasion that he questioned whether even the greatest men of olden times possessed more exhaustless invention than either Millais or Rossetti. He further expressed his conviction that since Turner's death any one picture by Hunt, Millais, or Rossetti was worth any three works by any other living artist. This statement naturally excited much disapprobation; but if we turn to Mr. Ruskin's other works, we shall find similar extraordinary assertions. In his "Elements of Drawing," we find in his recommendation to students that, after having expressed implicit faith in every work by Titian, Veronese, Tintoretto, Velasquez,

together with some others, including the Pre-Raphaelites, where a question of right or wrong may be admitted, he goes on to say: "You had better look at no other painters than these, for you run a chance, otherwise, of being led far off the road, or into grievous faults, by some of the other great ones, as Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Rubens; and of being, besides, corrupted in taste by the base ones, as Murillo, Salvator, Claude, Gaspar, Poussin, Teniers, and such others. You may look, however, for examples of evil, with safe universality of reprobation, being sure that everything you see is bad, at Domenichino, the Caracci, Bronzino, and the figure pieces of Salvator." Upon Murillo he is especially severe in more than one of his works—in the "Stones of Venice" relegating him to the lowest class of painters as regards motive and morality. Titian, on the contrary, he exalts into the third heaven. In spite of all strictures, however, the great Spanish painter will continue to have his admirers, who will not see in him all the evil described by Mr. Ruskin, while they will also perceive virtues the critic is unwilling to allow.

We have already referred to the marvellous skill in word-painting with which this writer unfolds his views, and it is only just to him to quote one passage of fine nervous English by way of illustrating his power over the mother-tongue. The following extract, which is neither more nor less eloquent than a hundred others, is to be found in "Modern Painters," and is a description of sunlight after storm at La Riccia: - "The noonday sun came slanting down the rocky slopes of La Riccia, and their masses of entangled and tall foliage. whose autumnal tints were mixed with the wet verdure of a thousand evergreens, were penetrated with it as with rain. I cannot call it colour, it was conflagration. Purple, and crimson. and scarlet, like the curtains of God's tabernacle, the rejoicing trees sank into the valley in showers of light, every separate leaf quivering with buoyant and burning life; each, as it turned to reflect or to transmit the sunbeam, first a torch and then an emerald. Far up into the recesses of the valley, the green vistas, arched like the hollows of mighty waves of some crystalline sea, with the arbutus flowers dashed along their flanks for foam, and silver flakes of orange spray tossed into the air around them, breaking over the grey walls of rock into a thousand separate stars, fading and kindling alternately as the weak wind lifted and let them fall: every glade of grass burned like the golden floor of heaven, opening in sudden gleams, as the foliage broke and closed above it, as sheet-lightning opens in a cloud at sunset; the motionless masses of dark rock—dark, though flushed with scarlet lichen—casting their quiet shadows across its restless radiance; the fountain underneath them, filling its marble hollow with blue mist and fitful sound; and over all, the multitudinous bars of amber and rose, the sacred clouds that have no darkness, and only exist to illumine, were seen in fathomless intervals, between the solumn and orbed repose of the stone-pines, passing to lose themselves in the last white blending lustre of the measureless line where the Campagna melted into the blaze of the sea."

Mr. Ruskin has of late years issued at intervals a series of lectures or disquisitions entitled "Fors Clavigera"—the precise reason for this title not being quite obvious. The papers are mostly letters of advice to English working men and others; but the writer has not always been happy in his handling of the various subjects to which he has devoted himself, and his views have occasionally called forth severe strictures from the press. The extravagance of language and of thought which have marked this writer of late years are frequently perceptible in "Fors Clavigera," and though the reader may perceive at times ideas which are noble in themselves and calculated, if transformed into action, to prove of much service to humanity, he is

too frequently bewildered by the indefiniteness of his teacher, and occasionally the absurdity of his utterances. In times past, however, Mr. Ruskin has proved his claim to the title of a teacher of ethics. "Modern Painters" is full of passages conveying lofty moral lessons expressed in the most glowing and eloquent language. Take this extract, for example, from the second volume of the work just named:-"Whatever may be the inability, in this present life, to mingle the full enjoyment of the Divine works with the full discharge of every practical duty, and confessedly in many cases this must be, let us not attribute the inconsistency to any indignity of the faculty of contemplation, but to the sin and suffering of the fallen state, and the change of order from the keeping of the garden to the tilling of the ground. We cannot say how far it is right or agreeable with God's will, while men are perishing round about us; while grief, and pain, and wrath, and impiety, and death, and all the powers of the air, are working wildly and evermore, and the cry of blood going up to heaven, that any of us should take hand from the plough; but this we know, that there will come a time when the service of God shall be the beholding of him; and though in these stormy seas, where we are now driven up and down, his Spirit is dimly seen on the face of the waters, and we are left to cast anchors out of the stern, and wish for the day—that day will come—when, with the evangelists on the crystal and stable sea, all the creatures of God shall be full of eyes within, and there shall be 'no more curse, but his servants shall serve him, and shall see his face." Mr. Ruskin endeavours to persuade men to extract all the beauty and the goodness that are possible out of human life. He is in no sense a pessimist, given over to despair, for Nature speaks to him of truth, of purity, and of goodness, and he is anxious that all the sons of men should hear her voice beckoning them back to their Maker. As he said on one occasion, "Supposing all circumstances otherwise the same with respect to two individuals, the one who loves Nature most will be always found to have more faith in God than the other." In fact, he presses home the old yet ever new lesson of "looking through Nature up to Nature's God."

Little is to be said of the private life of Mr. Ruskin, for though he numbers amongst his personal friends many of the most distinguished artists and writers of the day, he seldom conforms to the customs and conventionalities of society. Latterly he has shrunk from appearing in public more than ever, having gone, in fact, into strict retirement. His eccentricity has been carried so far, that the publishers who for more than a quarter of a century issued his works have ceased to do so; and Mr. Ruskin has himself issued a kind of manifesto, to the effect that if the working classes desire to obtain his works, they can afford to do so by due economy; and those who are not willing to sacrifice something in order to obtain them, he is not anxious to number amongst his readers. These works are now issued at an out-of-the-way village in Kent, generally considered without the pale of metropolitan literary influences, and by a gentleman hitherto unknown, we believe, in the capacity of a general publisher.

One incident has been recorded testifying both to Mr. Ruskin's kindly nature and his desire to benefit his fellow-men. In 1876 he finished the restoration of a spring of water between Croydon and Epsom, by erecting a tablet over it. This undertaking cost altogether about £500, and it is pleasant to be able to announce that what was a dirty pond is now an exquisitely clear pool of running water, fed directly from the springs underneath the chalk. The inscription is as follows:—"In obedience to the Giver of life, of the brooks and fruits that feed it, of the peace that ends it, may this well be kept sacred for the service of men, flocks, and flowers, and be by kindness called Margaret's Well. This pool was beautified and endowed by John Ruskin, Esq., M.A., LL.D." It appears that the pool lies by the side of the highway, and

is beautifully planted round with trees and flowers. It is stated with regard to the name of Margaret's Well, that the Christian name of Mr. Ruskin's mother was Margaret.

Since Mr. Ruskin essayed the rôle of the political economist, he has hardly done justice to his really fine intellect and imagination. The calibre of his mind is quite of another order from that required for the solvers of economic problems. In estimating the durable effect he is likely to have upon the age, consequently, we must leave out of sight much of the work which he has latterly given to the world. But even discounting all his vagaries and extravagances, he still remains one of the most powerful and original writers of the nineteenth century. Whether his views upon art will ever convert his opponents would be a rash speculation to venture upon, but even should this not be the case, we may affirm that the name of John Ruskin is destined to rank amongst those of the classic writers of the English language

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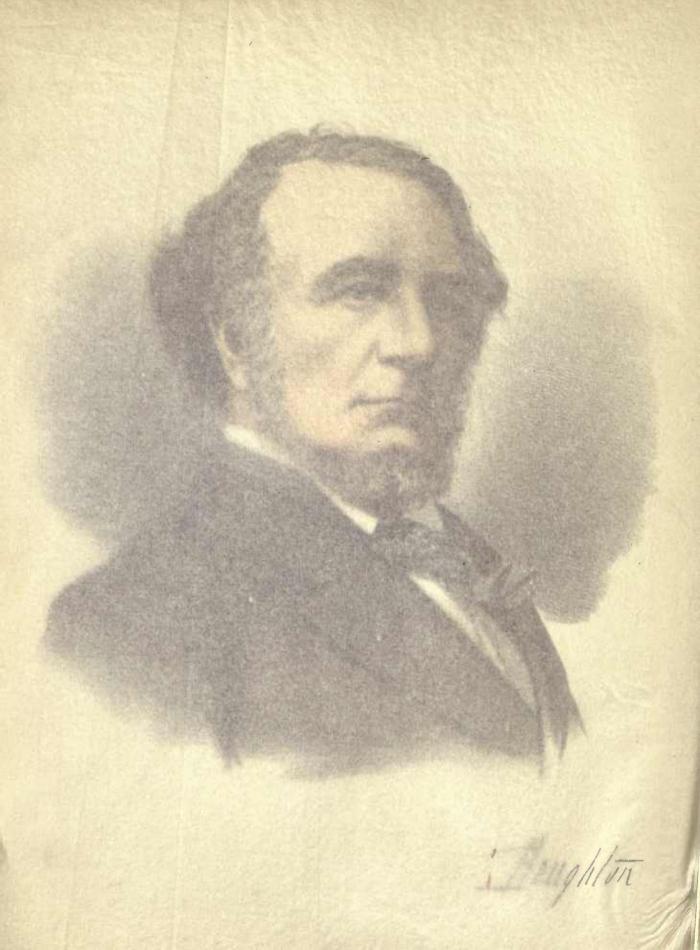


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THE RIGHT HON. LORD HOUGHTON.

DICHARD MONCETON MILNES, the first Lord Houghton, is a distinguished exercise that happily numerous class of Englishmen who, while they are born to the enjoyment of a certain wealth and buxury, find their greatest satisfaction in the cultivation of the arts and sciences. and in the progress of the nation generally, socially and politically. The initiation of many of the most valuable reforms which have been effected during the last two generations has been due in a great measure to the exertions of those who might be supposed to be born to a life of ease and opulence; and in this fact the aristocracy of England finds a great buttress as an institution. Noblemen whose motives cannot be impugned-as, for example, the Earl of Shaftesbury-are at the head of many of our philanthropic and social movements, and they are ever ready to lend the aid of a powerful hand whenever a good work may stand in need of patronage and support. Whatever may be the case as regards other countries, in England it would be obviously unjust to say that the lords of the soil are, as a rule, indifferent to the welfare of the masses, and solicitous only for that material good which may be derived by virtue of their position. And as the age progresses, we shall probably discover that the most enlightened members of the aristocracy will be assiduous in endeavouring to preserve unbroken the harmonious relations between the privileged and non-privileged ranks of society.

For a quarter of a century the nobleman who forms the subject of our present sketch was a prominent member of the House of Commons, in whose debates he frequently assisted. He was ever known as the steady friend of civil and religious liberty, and now, as regards these subjects, he is one of the most advanced members of the House of Peers. On no occusion, however, did he ever shrink from avowing his opinions, and he always bere the reputation-amongst friends and foes-of being an honest and straightforward politician. He was born in the year 1800 and was the son of Mr. Robert Pemberton Milnes, of Fryston Hall and Bawtry, Yorkshire, by the Hon. Henrietta Maria, fourth daughter of Viscount Galway. He was educated at Triange Company Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. at the early age of iwenty-one years. Fasting the University, he speedily devoted himself to Parliamentary life, being ancessful in the shortes the Pontefract in the year 1837. It is a remarkable fact that he continued to wanted borough uninterruptedly until 1863, when he was created a pair of the Victor Fileson and the year 1851 he was married to the Hon. Arabella flungerford, yourgest despite the contract of the state of Lord Crewe. Lord Houghton was always considered a personally and street and s Lower House, and upon occasion he could rise into flights of real manages the same to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of real manages to be a second of the could rise into flights of the could rise into flights. education and the amelioration of the social condition of the bases causes were become matters to which he was always devoted, and upon which he had alread to provide according valuable to advance. Parhaps the most successful of his effects and he discussed in the of the first Bill to establish reformatory schools for javenile essentials a 15 miles of the



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For a quarter of a century the nobleman who forms the subject of our present sketch was a prominent member of the House of Commons, in whose debates he frequently assisted. He was ever known as the steady friend of civil and religious liberty, and now, as regards these subjects, he is one of the most advanced members of the House of Peers. On no occasion, however, did he ever shrink from avowing his opinions, and he always bore the reputation-amongst friends and foes—of being an honest and straightforward politician. He was born in the year 1809, and was the son of Mr. Robert Pemberton Milues, of Fryston Hall and Bawtry, Yorkshire, by the Hon. Henrietta Maria, fourth daughter of Viscount Galway. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. at the early age of twenty-one years. University, he speedily devoted himself to Parliamentary life, being successful in the election for Pontefract in the year 1837. It is a remarkable fact that he continued to represent this borough uninterruptedly until 1863, when he was created a peer of the United Kingdom. the year 1851 he was married to the Hon. Arabella Hungerford, youngest daughter of the second Lord Crewe. Lord Houghton was always considered a persuasive and effective speaker in the Lower House, and upon occasion he could rise into flights of real eloquence. Subjects affecting education and the amelioration of the social condition of the lower classes were important matters to which he was always devoted, and upon which he had almost invariably something valuable to advance. Perhaps the most successful of his efforts was his introduction, in 1846, of the first Bill to establish reformatory schools for juvenile criminals, a movement which has

attained the happiest results, and in which his lordship still takes a deep interest, as president of the great central establishment at Redhill, in Surrey. His long career in Parliament, and his position as a man of letters—of which we shall have more to say hereafter—finally induced the Liberal Government of the day to recommend his name to Her Majesty as a worthy recipient of the honours of the peerage. His elevation gave general satisfaction, Conservatives as well as Liberals cordially recognising his claims to the dignity. Since that period his voice has been frequently heard in the Upper House, and always in favour of progressive reform, civil, political, and religious. It should be stated here, however, to prevent misconception, that Mr. Milnes first entered the House of Commons as a Liberal-Conservative. He supported Sir Robert Peel in his Free Trade measures, but in 1846 proposed the retention of a low duty on foreign corn. Latterly he has been a supporter of the successive Governments of Lords Palmerston and Russell, and of Mr. Gladstone. When divisions are called in the House of Lords, he now nearly always votes for Liberal measures; and, to quote his lordship's own words, he is a "warm advocate of liberty of conscience, and considers religious equality the birthright of every Briton." In all the movements of recent years for the extension of the suffrage, Lord Houghton has voted consistently for enlarging the privileges of the working classes, with whose interests he has identified himself in many ways. Amongst other forms in which he has shown his auxiety to promote the moral and physical welfare of the industrial classes may be mentioned the support he has tendered—both in a pecuniary and public sense—to the establishment of mechanics' institutes, penny savings banks, public readings, &c.

Although the present peer is the first holder of the title, the name of Milnes is by no means a new one amongst the county families of England. For instance, we discover that the family of Milnes, which was formerly seated in the poetic and romantic village of Ashford-in-the-Water, were considerable proprietors of estates in the county of Derby in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. We further learn from Burke and Debrett that the family intermingled with two other families equally well known as landed gentry in England—viz., those of Pemberton and Gaskell. As long ago as two centuries, also, a daughter of the house of Milnes was married to Ichabod Wright, Esq., of Nottingham, the ancestor of the well-known translator of "Dante." Within the last three generations, on the female side, the Milnes family have intermarried with the Wyvills, the Galways, and the Waddingtons, one of the last-named stock having become domiciled in France, and been appointed one of the Ministers in Marshal Maemahon's Cabinet. It will thus be seen that the first recipient of the title of Baron Houghton does not spring from an unknown ancestry.

As a social reformer, Lord Houghton has especially devoted himself to the cause of woman; and his lordship has taken the opportunity, during his somewhat extensive travels, of studying the status of women in the United States and other countries. When little was heard of the wrongs of women, Mr. Monekton Milnes was the steadfast, earnest friend of the oppressed, and was constant in his efforts to alleviate their sufferings, and to raise them to a position of greater dignity in the social scale than that which they had previously enjoyed. The same spirit has animated him upon this question down to the present time, and only comparatively recently he presided at a woman's suffrage meeting in the city of-York. In his opening address he spoke in favour of a petition for Parliamentary suffrage to female householders. By way of defining the position he assumes upon this question, it will be advisable to reproduce his more salient observations on that occasion. "The whole of America," remarked his lordship, "night at that moment have been a part of the English possessions but for the unsound attempt

of the Government to try to force upon them taxation without representation. That was, however, exactly the position of the women of England. He did not pretend to say that the issue would be the same. He did not pretend to say that if Parliament refused to grant the women of England that for which they asked they would go off into a separate community. They did not contemplate anything so dreadful. But they thought that they suffered an injustice in that, possessing and occupying property, as many of them did, they had no share or part in the representation of the country. He had been a short time previously in America, and there the subject was agitated with considerable earnestness, and with such imprudence as, he was afraid, would throw back the question for a considerable period. There was a difficulty in the matter there from the enormous increase which it would give to the constituency; but in England that difficulty did not exist, and the increase would be exactly in proportion to the amount of property which the women possessed. In no case would a woman vote as a woman, but simply as the holder of certain property—as having an interest in that property, and, so far, a stake in the country; and the legislature could gratify its sense of justice without any considerable revolution such as might shock the ideas or alter the destinies of the English people." It will be seen from this that the style of oratory which Lord Houghton adopts is not that of a violent partisan, but that it partakes rather of the argumentative type, which is not satisfied with the mere enforcement of opinion by dogmatic statements.

On another question which agitated the mind of England not long ago—that of the Fugitive Slaves—Lord Houghton took up a definite position, as we might have expected him to do, in favour of the slave. He delivered a very happy speech upon the subject at Pontefract during the Slave Circular agitation. He reminded his hearers that it had happened, and would happen again, that slaves under great provocation tried to escape to an English ship, thinking that an English ship was English soil—that once upon her deck they were free. His lordship declined to regard the question as a political one, but he was glad that the feeling which had been elicited upon the subject through the length and breadth of the land had come to so fortunate an issue. He rejoiced that his contention in behalf of the slave—and not his contention alone, but that of the great mass of Englishmen—that the free deek of an English ship should be the refuge of the slave who happened to gain it, had received the distinct adhesion of the Government. On this, as on many other topics, Lord Houghton has come forward and enunciated his views with clearness and firmness. Of the societies with which his lordship is connected, none has received from him a heartier support than the Royal Literary Fund, at whose meetings he has more than once spoken with considerable effect on the growing necessity for intellectual culture amongst all professional men. His literary friendships have been many and close, and he has himself referred to that which he held with the late learned Bishop Thirlwall, and which dated from the time he held what it is now the fashion to call an "idle fellowship."

But notwithstanding his success in public life, it must be generally admitted that the principal claim which Lord Houghton will possess upon posterity remains in connection with his literary works. Almost from the time when he was able to write or think he has been accustomed to express his thoughts in prose or in verse. We have many current examples besides that of his lordship where it would be distinctly misleading to estimate the ultimate value of the works of writers by the amount of popular fervour which they have created. In this case, however, it would be particularly unfortunate to attempt to assess the actual value of the author's labours by the mere bubble reputation which attends a fortunate writer, whose works would scarcely bear the investigation which an unbiassed generation in the future will give to them. It is, we believe, the destiny

of many of Lord Houghton's poems to become more popular with the lapse of years. One of those poems, commencing "I wandered by the Brook-side" has already become known in every quarter of the globe where the English language is spoken, and has been set to music numbers of times. We shall endeavour to distinguish why the poems of Lord Houghton have not attracted the attention of the multitude, except to a limited extent, as compared with the more abstruse efforts of bards whose genius may be more robust, but is certainly not so sweet or tender. Meanwhile, it is interesting to note how prolific our author was for several years—though latterly he has rested upon his laurels—and what good work he has almost silently achieved, amidst so much that is meretricious, and which cannot possibly stand the test of time. So long ago as 1833—that is, when Mr. Monckton Milnes was twenty-four years of age—he published a most interesting volume entitled "Memorials of a Tour in some Parts of Greece," which not only demonstrated its writer's sympathy with all that is noble in history and art, but also his singular power of appreciating character by a kind of sympathetic insight which would scarcely have been expected from one who is generally supposed amongst authors to possess somewhat of a phlegmatic temperament. That this latter is an erroneous opinion—imbibed we scarcely know how-we are free to confess; for in truth, though Lord Houghton's poems by no means exhibit the perfervidum ingenium of a Shelley, they are far from being devoid of the divine afflatus, without which no man should venture to assume the office of the poet. After the volume we have just mentioned came, in 1838, the "Poems of Many Years," one of the works by which its author will be after all best remembered, and which was reviewed in a noticeable article by the late Professor Wilson (the genial "Christopher North") in that Northern repository of literature and criticism, "Blackwood's Magazine"—a vehicle which has given to the world not only nearly all the productions of "George Eliot," but also, in its earlier numbers, many of the best and most searching articles to which the literary enthusiast can turn for careful and conscientious criticism. To the volume just mentioned succeeded another (also in verse), in 1838, entitled "Memorials of a Residence on the Continent, and Historical Poems;" and shortly afterwards—that is, in 1840 the author published his "Memorials of many Scenes." After a still further volume of poems, published in 1844, and which dealt almost exclusively with legendary or mythological subjects, Lord Houghton issued a work embodying his thoughts upon party politics, which was succeeded by "One Tract More." His lordship wrote several other political pamphlets, amongst them being one on the "Real Union of England and Ireland," which attracted considerable attention at the time of its But though by no means indifferent to political warfare, it is fortunate for the world that his lordship had a stronger bias towards literature; for, in addition to the works we have enumerated, we owe to his devotion to letters that admirable book, the "Remains of John Keats," and a further volume of original poems called "Palm Leaves." Lord Houghton has laid all lovers of literature under an obligation for his editorship of the "Remains of Keats," which have placed before us in so clear a light that strangely-gifted poetical genius.

The poems of Mr. Milnes gained the public ear, although the elaborate reviews which they called forth were not always of a highly eulogistic description. Still, the fact that a new poet is able to demand attention in the most influential quarters is no slight tribute to his powers. Writing so long ago as 1839, the North American Review, which is justly considered the highest literary organ in the United States, observed, in the course of a lengthy criticism upon the works in question:—"His poetry, while possessing unusual merits of a certain kind, is yet defective and ineffectual from the want of the poetic soul. It wants impulse and glow. It is elaborate, stately, and sonorous in form and movement; generous, moral,

and devout in sentiment; bearing with it an air of philosophical pretension, and shaded by a gentle touch of melancholy. But there is a frequent want of ear, and a straining after what is original and striking both in treatment and diction, which turns the pleasure of perusal into laborious effort. The reader is not borne on by the current, but is obliged to bend his mind with an effort, and make a study of the verses." Homer, however, sometimes nods, and we are inclined to believe that the literary authority from which we have just quoted exaggerated the defects of Mr. Milnes, while it was scarcely sufficiently commendatory of his merits. Indeed, as a set-off against this criticism, may be mentioned that of another of the high authorities of literature, which maintained that Mr. Milnes had both the painter's eye and the musical ear. differences between literary critics have been amongst the wonders of every age, but the old adage explains all-De questibus non disputandum. It is singular, however, to compare even the opinions we have already quoted with that passed by a very high authority upon Mr. Milnes's poems, namely, Sir Archibald Alison. In his "History of Europe," this distinguished historian observes: "Mr. M. Milnes has presented to the world several volumes of poems abounding in such brilliant imagery, and containing such refined sentiments, that they have secured for him a very high place in the estimation of all to whom the beautiful or interesting in art or nature possess any charm." When we remember from whence it comes, this praise is high indeed. A more judicial estimate of Mr. Milnes's poetical labours, if not so glowing a one, was given by D. M. Moir, in his "Sketches of the Poetical Literature of the First Half of the Present Century." The writer of this eulogium remarked that "the poetry of R. M. Milnes possesses very considerable elegance and taste, a philosophical sentiment and a graceful tenderness, but is deficient in individuality and power, although not perhaps so much so as might at first seem; for, as in Henry Taylor's, the grand prevailing element is repose; his sunset has no clouds and his morning no breezes. From his lack of constructiveness and dramatic passion he appears to most advantage in his serious, his sentimental, and descriptive sketches, many of which are fine and striking, although he often mars the general effect by unnecessary analyses. He may be said to have followed more in the wake of Wordsworth than of any other preceding poet; although his admiration of Keats and Shelley is not unseldom apparent. His narrative is wanting in rapidity and action, and is apt to fall into a pleasing monotony and languor, from which we are not roused by salient points—the current of his thoughts would be vivified by more frequent breaks and waterfalls. Hence his 'Poetry for the People' was a misnomer, for, instead of being circumstantial and palpable, it was abstract and beyond the reach of their sympathies. About all the productions of Monekton Milnes there is an artistic-like finish, and his ear is finely attuned to the melodies of verse." There is unquestionably much true critical acumen displayed in this judgment, but it makes the mistake which is but a too common one of assuming that the people can rarely, and to a very small degree, appreciate high art. The real fact is the opposite, for Tennyson, the most consummate poetic artist of his time, is in every sense a popular poet, as well as the poet of the cultured few. The people are quite capable of understanding and valuing the highest literary labour, and this is a lesson which Mr. Ruskin has begun to inculcate in his declining years. For ourselves, we should also heartily endorse it.

Lord Houghton's poems have, however, now been issued in the form of a collected edition, so that his poetical labours can now be estimated in the bulk. One of the leading critical journals took the opportunity, on the appearance of this edition, of thus defining the position it believes his lordship to occupy in English literature. "If we were asked what it is which constitutes the specific claim of Lord Houghton's poetry to a certain modest place of its

own in the poetry of our day, we should say it was the intertwining in his mind between the threads of tender sentiment and that kind of knowledge of the world which is so apt to take all the melody out of sentiment. . . . So, again, there are bits of clear, statuesque description which Lord Houghton has written which are admirable of their kind. . . . Take this, for instance, written at Mycenæ, on a vision of Agamemnon, Iphigenia, Clytemnestra, and Orestes—which appears to us almost as good of its kind as one or two of Shelley's descriptive sonnets, but not marked by any authentic seal of the author's:—

'I saw a weird procession glide along
The vestibule before the Lion's gate;
A Man of godlike limb and warrior state,
Who never looked behind him, led the throng;
Next a pale Girl, singing sweet sorrow, met
My eyes, who ever pointed to a fleck
Of ingrained crimson on her marble neek;
Her a fierce Woman, armed with knife and net,
Close followed, whom a Youth pursued with smile,
Once mild, now bitter-mad, himself the while
Pursued by three foul Shapes, gory and grey:
Dread family! . . . I saw another day
The phantom of that Youth, sitting alone,
Quiet, thought-bound, a stone upon a stone.'

It is not often that Lord Houghton describes his vision as nervously as he does here." We are convinced that any diligent student of Lord Houghton's poems will agree with this estimate formed of them by the *Spectator*, which journal has also the following further passage, expressing in brief compass a just tribute to and appraisement of his lordship's poetry generally:—"Even where his verse is poorest, his criticism is sometimes striking, as, for instance, in the lines on 'The Return of Ulysses to Ithaca,' which are nothing at all as a poem, but which embody a fine and delicate criticism on the wonderful beauty of that touch in the 'Odyssey' which makes Ulysses reach his home at last in deep sleep, and lays him like a weary child on the shore of the island home for which he has been yearning so long. But when Lord Houghton says that whatever little hold his poems 'may have taken on their time is owing to their sincerity of thought and simplicity of expression,' he hardly does justice to his own critical faculty. . . . It is the blending of sentiment with knowledge of the world—not a cynical, but a sympathetic blending—which gives the unique character to the best of Lord Houghton's poems."

As instances of Lord Houghton's success in varying modes and colours of thought may be mentioned "The Long Ago," "Never Again," "The Men of Old," the beautiful poem to Myrrha, and the stanzas entitled "Moments." The world must surely be better for the inculcation of such lessons as are taught in the last-named, in the course of which occur these lines:—

"A sense of an earnest will

To help the lowly living,
And a terrible heart thrill

If you have no power of giving;
An arm of aid to the weak,
A friendly hand to the friendless,
Kind words, so short to speak,
But whose echo is endless;
The world is wide, these things are small,
They may be nothing, but they are All."

A man is always worth hearing in his own defence, however, and when Lord Houghton, in the collected edition of his poetical works, thus expressed himself in his preface, he gave the real raison d'être for his existence as a poet. "He holds it." says the author. "to be the duty of every man to dispense and diffuse what has sprung up freshly and purely in his own moral being, if he possess the artistic means necessary to convey it agreeably to others; and the merit of the poet will ever less depend on the perfection of the conduct than on the virtue of the stream." The poets of reflection have their place, as well as the poets of passion; to the former Lord Houghton belongs, but he adds also the graces of style which belong to the accomplished scholar. There is no great creative power in his writings, but they possess a certain quiet beauty and truthfulness to Nature which make them acceptable. Though he may be occasionally prosaic, and also given to undue elaboration, it is only fair to say that these defects are more than counterbalanced by merits of a more positive character. In all probability his lordship would have done better had he studied more closely the impassioned school of poetry, rather than the meditative, as represented by Wordsworth. His nature is rather contemplative than passionate, and a larger infusion of the spiritual element predominant in Shelley would have given to his poetry that warmth and glow which the critics now find lacking.

As a tribute to the position which his lordship holds in the literary world, we must refer to the address he made at the banquet given by the Lord Mayor in May, 1876, to the representatives of literature and journalism. From his connection with the two ranks of intellectual workers thus indicated, he was well entitled to refer to the achievements of their devotees. With an abnegation which did him credit, Lord Houghton expressed his pride in belonging to the "Commons" of literature, and said that so long as he could sit at the same table—in however humble a position—at which Mr. Browning and Mr. Swinburne presided, he was content. He also at the same time paid the following just tribute to the House of Lords:—"I know that it has never for one moment ceased to welcome within its walls all kinds of talent whenever they arise, and it is thus that the English aristocracy remains an aristocracy, because it can fairly presume itself to be of the best." England has undoubtedly been behind some other nations in the rewards it has extended to literary merit, but there are signs of an awakening in this respect which bode well for the future intellectual welfare of the kingdom. A nation can no more afford to neglect its heroes in letters than it can afford to suffer its men of science or its victorious warriors to sink into obscurity.

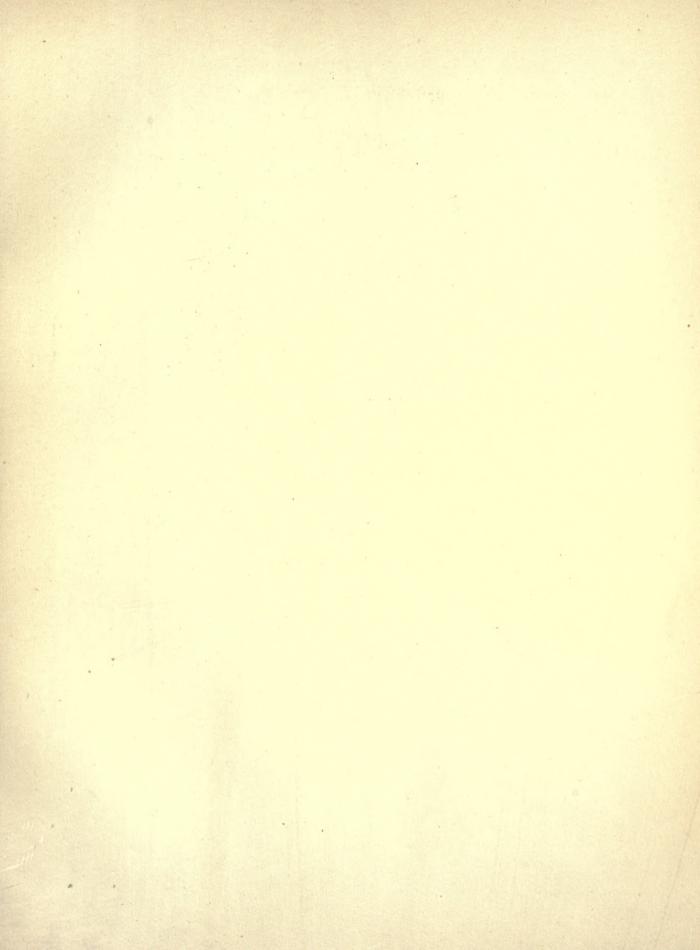
Although Lord Houghton was educated at Cambridge, it may be mentioned that the Oxford University, by way of signifying its appreciation of his talents, has conferred upon him the honorary degree of D.C.L., which is usually awarded to distinguished men of letters and science.

Lord Houghton has long been known in another capacity besides that of a literary man, namely, that of a brilliant conversationalist, and as a leader and frequenter of society. For nearly forty years he has had intimate acquaintance with many of the best spirits of the age, and the geniality of his manners peculiarly fits him for the rôle in which he has thus distinguished himself. Partly as the result of his personal knowledge, and partly on the ground of the interest likely to be engendered by such a collection of portraits, he wrote and published his last literary effort, entitled "Monographs, Personal and Social." His volume consists of a series of most interesting papers on celebrated personages, most—if not all—of whom were known to the author. The portraits contained in the volume are those of Suleiman Pasha, Alexander Von Humboldt, Cardinal Wiseman, Walter Savage Landor, the Berrys, Harriet Lady Ashburton, the Rev. Sydney Smith, and Heinrich Heine. The whole work is full of graphic touches and

interesting details respecting the illustrious subjects of the memoirs, and the publication of such a collection of studies was a happy idea. It furnishes just those interesting side-lights which do so much to place characters in their true position in contemporary history. He promises us other volumes drawn from his recollections of literary and social life.

But Lord Houghton has a better claim upon the present generation than almost any of those we have already enumerated. As the encourager of genius he has legitimately earned the gratitude of all lovers of poetry, art, and literature. He has sometimes been called the Mæcenas of the age; but if that description seem too strong, he has still done more than perhaps any other person of his time to bring to perfection struggling talent. It was he who befriended David Gray, and many another worthy aspirant in the field of literature, while the genius of Mr. Swinburne perhaps owes its first appreciation to his friendship. Wherever merit has been brought to his notice—no matter what the condition of life in which it was discovered—the possessor of the hidden treasure found a friend in Richard Monckton Milnes, in whose heart literary jealousy has no place. Were it on this account alone, his name would be cherished by those to whom genius is dear, and who would not have it perish by the roadside from contumely and neglect. Next to producing works which bear upon them the stamp of immortality, is the reputation of him who, as far as in him lies, endeavours to secure the justly-deserved immortality of others.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied from a Photograph by Mr. W. Klanser, 466, Sixth Avenue, New York.]





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SIR WILLIAM VERNON-HARCOURT, M.P.

IF we compare the brilliancy of the human intellect with that exhibited by those lesser lights which rule the night-and no figure is more frequent or more appropriate-we shall find that, as there are in the spangled night-sky two different kinds of lustre discernible by the naked eye, so is there the same diversity observable in the gradual order of intellects. A child will tell us the difference between the flashing light of the star and the lambent lustre of the planet; and, setting aside those eccentric geniuses which are typified only by the comet or the meteor, these are the two great categories into which mental excellence divides itself. On the one side we have those brilliant intellects which rise by sheer innate force of character superior to all obstacles -the self-made men, who shine like literal stars amidst the surrounding darkness; on the other side, those often equally great men who, born to greatness, maintain their position, and illuminate the order to which they belong. The brilliancy of the star and the planet differs not so much in degree as in kind. Among the men of mark whose careers call for the notice of the biographer, we find most frequently those who compass success-who either achieve greatness for themselves, or seem to have it thrust upon them by an almost capricious good fortune. There is something dramatic in these careers, so much so that they sometimes blind us to the merits of such as are less startling and effective.

Sir William George Granville Venables Vernon-Harcourt, the subject of our present memoir, belongs, perhaps, rather to the latter than to the former category, in so far that, having been born to a distinguished position, he has adorned that position. He has not had to attain that status in society which is the laudable object of every man's ambition; but, finding himself already occupying a lofty niche in the Temple of Fame, he has not only run no risk of illustrating the proverbially facilis descensus, but, beyond this, has added, and may yet add, new laurels to those which surrounded his brow at birth. A Porphyrogenitus has precisely the same opportunities, and is liable to the same dangers as the new man. Here the difference is solely one of degree, not, as in the cases cited above, of kind. Were we inclined to play upon words, we might say that, owning an historic name, he has lent a new significance to it.

Mr. Vernon-Harcourt (for it was by that title he became familiar to us) is the second son of the Rev. William Vernon-Harcourt, and the grandson of the late Archbishop of York. He was born at Nuneham Park in the year 1827—born, as we have said, to the purple, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1851. His name appears among the Senior Optimes, and in the first class of the Classical Tripos for that year. Selecting the law for his profession, he was called to the Bar as a member of the Inner Tomple in 1854, and want the Home Circuit, becoming Queen's Counsel in the year 1866.



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Mr. Vernon-Harcourt (for it was by that title he became familiar to us) is the second son of the Rev. William Vernon-Harcourt, and the grandson of the late Archbishop of York. He was born at Nuncham Park in the year 1827—born, as we have said, to the purple, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1851. His name appears among the Senior Optimes, and in the first class of the Classical Tripos for that year. Selecting the law for his profession, he was called to the Bar as a member of the Inner Temple in 1854, and went the Home Circuit, becoming Queen's Counsel in the year 1866.

But it is on the frontier-line where law merges in politics that Sir William Vernon-Harcourt has made his mark. He practised at the Parliamentary Bar, and, after unsuccessfully contesting the Kirkaldy Burghs in 1858, was, ten years afterwards, elected Liberal member for the City of Oxford, a seat he continues to retain. It is very interesting, when sketching the career of one who has since become a Parliamentary veteran, to look back and see, crystallised in the coldblooded pages of "Hansard," his maiden speech, or earliest Parliamentary utterance—for sometimes such an utterance does not attain the dignity of actual oratory. In Mr. Vernon-Harcourt's case, the earliest of such utterances, as far as our record goes, consists, characteristically enough, of a simple question relating to the Judgments on Corrupt Practices at Elections-iust the question one can imagine a Parliamentary lawyer asking, but one that is not so interesting to the community at large. On a subsequent occasion in the same session (March, 1869) he brought forward the subject in a more formal shape, calling attention to the situation in which the House of Commons is placed by the absence of any authentic record of the judgments delivered by the judges appointed to try election petitions, which judgments interpret and declare, without appeal, the law of Parliament, upon which, he added, depends the rights of the constituencies, the title of their representatives, and the constitution of the House of Commons. A good deal of the ardour of the tyro is discernible in the speech with which he followed up the statement. He hoped his right honourable friend, the Secretary of State for the Home Department, would not tell him that the question was going to be sent to a committee. It embraced only two or three short points; and he ventured to say that the Attorney-General and the Solicitor-General could, in half an hour, prepare a Bill that would settle the whole thing. For this proposal he received a dignified rap over the knuckles on the score of impetuosity and Parliamentary juvenility. Rising to the challenge, the Attorney-General said, with a touch of quiet satire, that he was not so sanguine as to concur with his honourable and learned friend in thinking that a Bill to amend the law could be prepared in half an hour; and he thought that when his honourable and learned friend had a little more experience in that House, he would find that Bills could not be got through quite so rapidly as he seemed to suppose. Nevertheless, Mr. Vernon-Harcourt's speech was a brilliant one. Perhaps no passage was more pertinent than the illustration drawn from turf matters. "One of the great scandals of the old system," he said, "was that on the morning of the race the favourite was scratched. The more money there was on a horse, the greater the certainty of its being scratched on the morning of the race. The more certain a petition was of succeeding if it were proceeded with, the greater the certainty of its being withdrawn."

In the year 1869 he was elected Professor of International Law in the University of Cambridge. This professorship was only founded in the year 1867, in accordance with the will of the Rev. William Whewell, D.D., late Master of Trinity College. The professor, who receives a salary of £500 a year, is required to give annually a course of twelve lectures at least, on the subject of International Law; and, by the founder's express injunctions, he is "to make it his aim, in all parts of his treatment of the subject, to lay down such rules and to suggest such measures as may tend to diminish the evils of war, and finally to extinguish war between nations." The bequest is interesting in a two-fold way, as evidencing the testator's opinions on the subject of arbitration in place of warfare, and also showing the extension of the University system into channels once unheeded, but surely most legitimate for its influence to permeate.

This leads us to speak of Sir William Vernon-Harcourt for the first time under the familiar pseudonym of "Historicus." In the year 1863 were reprinted in an octavo volume the three

letters contributed to the Times by "Historicus," "On some Questions of International Law," The special subject principally treated was that of the International Doctrine of Recognition, a subject, as the author himself said, on which little precise information is to be found in the ordinary textbooks. Appearing as these letters originally did during the struggle between the Northern and Southern States, the absence of partisanship is very noteworthy; and the writer pays a graceful compliment to the American authorities on international law. He says:-" Of all the sources of authority on these subjects, the most valuable—though, unfortunately, in this country not the best known—are the decisions of the American courts. The policy of neutrality and peace which was, until the late unhappy events, the sacred tradition of the United States, has brought it about that the Rights and Duties of Belligerents and Neutrals have been more fully and minutely discussed in the jurisprudence of that country than in that of our own. No praise too high can be awarded to a body of decisions which, for learning, impartiality, logic, and good sense, are unsurpassed in historical annals. Nothing gives me greater confidence in maintaining the justice and equity of English practice than the knowledge that on all the great topics of international law, the voice of that which was once the chief neutral power of the world is absolutely in accord with Great Britain, who, from various causes, has taken the lead among maritime belligerents." In a kindred spirit, he adds, "An equal, if not higher, reputation belongs to the archives of American diplomatic statesmanship at the close of the last and the beginning of the present century. The published volumes of American State Papers during the early years of the French revolutionary war present a noble monument of dignity, moderation, and good faith; they are répertoires of statesmanlike principles and judicial knowledge. Their relation to the publications of modern trans-Atlantic politicians is much that of the literature of Rome under Augustus to that of the Lower Empire." These tributes of respect to our relatives on the other side of the Atlantic are peculiarly valuable when we consider that they come from one who has made international matters his special subject of study; more interesting still when we recollect that the particular purpose of that study was to be, according to the testamentary bequest of the departed scholar, the spread of that peculiarly Christian régime, "Peace on earth, and goodwill towards men."

"Deeds, not words" is the motto generally assumed by our men of action; but for one whose arena is the system of law and politics the adage must be almost reversed. Verba non facta would be no uncomplimentary motto to set down as that of a man like Sir William Vernon-Harcourt. In the case of the ordinary politician, and especially, perhaps, of the political lawyer, words are deeds, or issue and take shape in deeds which sway the destiny of nations. Butler went so far as to say that "Intentions are acts." The quiet thoughts of the student pass out from his closet and influence the worlds of thought and action in widening and everwidening circles. So, too, with the words of the writer or speaker—and we have to consider Sir William Vernon-Harcourt in each of these capacities—it is in these we see the man. We may go down to the House and see an orator, whom we should criticise perhaps as somewhat heavy in debate, carrying his legal style into the Legislative Assembly; we might say that he lacked the finish of his friend Mr. Disraeli-for fast friends they are, though of opposite politics -yet we should see that he commands the respect of that august Assembly; and when the terse debate broadens out into a set speech, or when the pregnant sentences of "Historicus" appear in the leading journal of the day, we are at no loss to account for this influence. Not only is his grasp of a subject vigorous and comprehensive, but he has the rare faculty of making others grasp it vigorously and comprehensively too. One or two selections from his more

noteworthy political deliveries will place the man before us as in a cameo portrait, and enable the disciple of Lavater to test the significance of the physiognomy by the light of such speeches.

Let us trace him first of all in his connection with that important movement—the Elementary Education Act of the year 1870. Read from an ex post facto point of view, Mr. Vernon-Harcourt's anticipations as to the perils of School Board elections are not a little amusing, and serve admirably to illustrate the higher style of his political oratory. In the debate on Mr. Forster's Elementary Education Bill, after describing ordinary municipal elections, he bade the House picture these "with the element of religious animosity superadded." "I suppose," he said, "that there will be 'religious' public-houses in every street; that blue and vellow placards will invite the voters to support 'Jones and the Thirty-nine Articles,' or 'Smith, and no Creed,' or 'Robinson, and down with the Bishops;' and cabs will be flying about advertising the theological merits of the different denominations, and rival divines will take the chair nightly at meetings in public-houses and beer-taps. There will be a great deal of religious discussion, and a good deal more of religious beer. Towards the afternoon of the next day there will be miraculous conversions of all kinds; next morning many people will find out that in the course of twenty-four hours they have held every known form of religious faith; while close upon four o'clock on the polling-day men will accept as many Articles of the faith as you may supply them with pints of beer, and the least sober will be the most orthodox. That is your plan for spreading religious education among the people." It need scarcely be said, when years have accumulated upon the passing of the Elementary Education Act, that the thoroughly Hogarthian word-picture of a School Board election contained in these sentences has not altogether been realised; but there is equally little doubt that they represented the real convictions of the speaker, though garnished, of course, with rhetorical decorations, and purposely exaggerated for the exigencies of the moment. The position Mr. Vernon-Harcourt laid down was that the Bill was evasive, for, as he contended, it avoided deciding the religious question. The amendment for which he was speaking, on the contrary, though negative in terms, involved, he argned, two positive assertions: first, that the duty of dealing with the religious question lay with Parliament; and, next, that it must be dealt with on what he called "the great principle of the Liberal party—the principle of religious equality." Speaking for the Government, Mr. Gladstone, on the occasion of the second reading of the Bill, declined to accede to a proposal of Mr. Vernon-Harcourt that the Education Department should secure that, in all schools assisted by the public rates, such religious education as might be given should be "undenominational in its character, and confined to unsectarian instruction in the Bible," because he said he did not know "what, in the language of the law, undenominational and unsectarian meant." So warmly did Mr. Vernon-Harcourt enter into this subject that he threatened to raise an annual education debate on every occasion of voting the Parliamentary grant.

As an amusing contrast to the graphic oratorical picture drawn by Mr. Vernon-Harcourt, it may not be inappropriate to quote what really did take place at the first School Board election, which took place at the close of the same year (1870) in which the Act was passed. It was rendered more than usually significant from the circumstances that it included the first English experiments in the ballot, in woman's suffrage and woman's candidature. "For the purposes of the election, the metropolitan district was formed into ten divisions:—the City of London, returning four members; the City of Westminster, five; Marylebone, seven; Finsbury, six; Hackney, the Tower Hamlets, and Lambeth, five each; Southwark, Chelsea, and Greenwich, four each—making a total of forty-nine members. In the first of these divisions only was the voting performed

openly. In the other divisions each voter had to go to one of the polling-places, and to receive a voting-paper printed with the names of the eandidates proposed; and was to record upon the paper those for whom he chose to vote, but not to sign it with his name. There were nearly three hundred polling-places altogether throughout the whole of London open from eight o'clock in the morning till eight in the evening, and the number of voters was fully as great as at a central election for Parliament. There was, however, no disorder, and the female voters were in The arrangements were similar in most of the polling-places. At a table sat a president and two inspectors, attended by a rate-collector with his books, and each voter had to identify himself and establish his right of suffrage before the voting-paper was handed to him. In a quiet part of each room, writing-places, in each of which one man could write conveniently, were fitted up, and to one of these each elector retired, and indicated the names of the candidates of his or her choice. In another part of the room was the ballot-box, into which they dropped the voting-paper folded. There were about a hundred and fifty eandidates in London for seats at the Board, and the result of the elections was most satisfactory in the variety of interests secured, and the variety of qualifications that were successful. With a few exceptions, the elite of the candidates were certainly chosen; but it was in Marylebone that the proceedings excited, perhaps, the greatest interest, and that the results were the most interesting. That district returned Miss Elizabeth Garrett [now Mrs. Garrett-Anderson], a lady-physician, and a well-known advocate of woman's rights, so effectually at the head of the poll that she received 20,000 votes more than any other candidate in any part of London, the number recorded for her being upwards of 45,000. Amongst the other successful candidates were Professor Huxley, Mr. Rogers—the rector of Bishopsgate—a name well known in connexion with education (whose election was a high and spontaneous compliment, as he had come forward late in the day, and with very little canvassing) -Miss Emily Davies, Lord Lawrence, Mr. W. H. Smith, and Dr. Barry-the Principal of King's One working man alone was returned, Mr. Lucraft, whom Finsbury selected as the last of her successful candidates. The Board comprises three Roman Catholies and one Baptist minister, besides members of other religious communities."

Before proceeding to our next Parliamentary picture, we have to record the appointment of Mr. Vernon-Harcourt to the post of Solicitor-General in November, 1873, which position was held by him until the resignation of Mr. Gladstone in the following February, and on which occasion he was knighted, becoming what we now know him—namely, Sir William Vernon-Harcourt. That next picture shall be one on which the colours are as yet scarcely dry—the famous Public Worship Regulation Act of 1874.

A year previously there had been presented to the two Archbishops an address signed by 60,000 persons, calling their attention to a state of things thus described in the Quarterly Review:—"For twenty years and more the most active efforts have been made to bring our worship into harmony with that of the Romish Church, and especially to assimilate Holy Communion with the Mass by 'histrionic' means." This is no place for theological or ecclesiastical discussion; we prefer, therefore, to quote others rather than state in our own words the discussions which serve, so far as we are concerned, simply to bring our heroes into the arena.

The Archbishop of Canterbury introduced the measure into the House of Lords on April 20. It came to the House of Commons in July, and a splendid debate ensued at the second reading. It was then that Mr. Gladstone, declaring war to the knife against the Bill, proposed his famous Six Resolutions; and then, too, Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, breaking away altogether

from allegiance to his late leader, delivered himself of a speech on which much of his fame as a Parliamentary orator must for the future rest, whatever be the subsequent utterances of his lips; for never, perhaps, will there occur another topic on which the great heart of the nation will throb so eagerly as on this. Referring to the speech of Mr. Gladstone, which, it has been truly said, "electrified the House," Sir William calmly criticised it. They had, he said, rising in his place at half-past ten o'clock, all been under the wand of the great enchanter, and had listened with rapt attention as he poured forth the wealth of his incomparable eloquence. But as he listened with that admiration which they all shared to the magnificent oration, he asked himself in the progress of it, how the principles so enunciated could be reconciled with the principles upon which a National Church was founded. The speech was an eloquent and powerful plea against the principles of uniformity. But he could not help recollecting that the Church of England was founded on successive Acts of Uniformity. As he listened while Mr. Gladstone spoke of the advantages of variety of practice in different parts of the kingdom, and even in different parts of parishes in this Metropolis; when he told the House that in different parts of Belgravia different practices prevailed, his mind went back to that ancient document, the preface to the Liturgy of the Church of England, which, in the various changes the Liturgy had undergone, appeared in them all. That preface was drawn up by the great author of the Reformation—he believed it came from the pen of Archbishop Cranmer—and he would ask leave to read a passage known to most, familiar to them from youth, and which seemed to contain within it a complete and satisfactory answer to the eloquent argument they had heard that night. It was this:-"And, whereas, heretofore, there hath been great diversity in saying and singing in churches within this realm, some following Salisbury use, some Hereford use, and some the use of Bangor, some of York, and some of Lincoln; now from henceforth all the whole realm shall have but one use." Mr. Gladstone invoked the name of Liberty-liberty for the clergy to do what seemed fit in their own eyes. But the answer to that plea, raised in that sacred name which we all reverence, was given by the greatest of all Nonconformists when he said, "Licence they mean when they cry 'Liberty!'" He was in favour of freedom and comprehensiveness in the doctrine and practice of the national Church, but that freedom and that comprehensiveness were to be sought and obtained in the breadth of her formularies and in the tolerance of her creed, and not in the individual judgment and personal license of particular priests. Passing in review the various Acts of Uniformity, Sir William said that the House of Commons could not deny that something must be done, because the nation demanded that something should be done. In his opinion, that something would not come from Convocation. If it were to be of any use, it must come from the Crown and Parliament of England. What was required by the nation, and what Parliament had to do, was to re-assert the unalterable attachment of the English people to the principles of the English Reformation. It was necessary to show that the national Church of England was in reality what it ought to be-the Church of a Protestant. nation. If our law were defective, if our rubrics were obsolete, why, let them be reformed and enforced; but we must not set up the dangerous doctrine of optional conformity, which would allow any priest to do what he pleased, and to set at defiance those principles of the Reformation which for three centuries had been established by the law of England.

Unkindly critics denounced Sir William Vernon-Harcourt's Protestantism as "a bold Erastian manifesto," and discerned in it a "bid" for the leadership of the Liberal party, which the far-seeing perceived even then to be slipping from the grasp of Mr. Gladstone. Without adopting so gratuitous an assumption, there is no question that, when Mr. Gladstone subsequently resigned

the leadership, Sir William was supposed by some to be his natural successor. At a subsequent stage of the Bill, which has now become law, Mr. Gladstone quoted Canonists in support of his peculiar views, when Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, who, as it was remarked, seemed to find a pleasure in confronting his former chief, declared that the notion of quoting Canonists was enough to make Lord Coke's bones turn in his grave, and protested, amid loud cheering, against the relations of bishops and archbishops being governed by the Canon Law, or any other authority than that of the British Legislature.

It would be impossible to select from all the Protean aspects under which one might regard this most versatile gentleman two more thoroughly typical evidences of his soundness in religious and political matters than these we have quoted. He was one of the original contributors to the Saturday Review, but is the author of no extended literary work. His specialty is entirely in the direction of a Parliamentary lawyer and orator. His chief publications have been political pamphlets and the volume of letters by "Historicus" alluded to above. Sir William Vernon-Harcourt is not a book-maker; but from the time of his maiden speech his contributions to "Hansard" are constant.

Next to his writings and speeches in Parliament, the best index one can offer as to the inner self of a public character is the statement which from time to time he thinks fit to make to his constituents—a kind of Parliamentary apologia pro vitâ suâ, which, couched in a popular form, frequently presents a very vivid portraiture of his individuality. Such a declaration we have on the part of Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, when he unbosomed to his constituents in the Corn Exchange at Oxford, on the 21st of December, 1874. The exordium is in his happiest strain, without a symptom of forensic prosiness:—

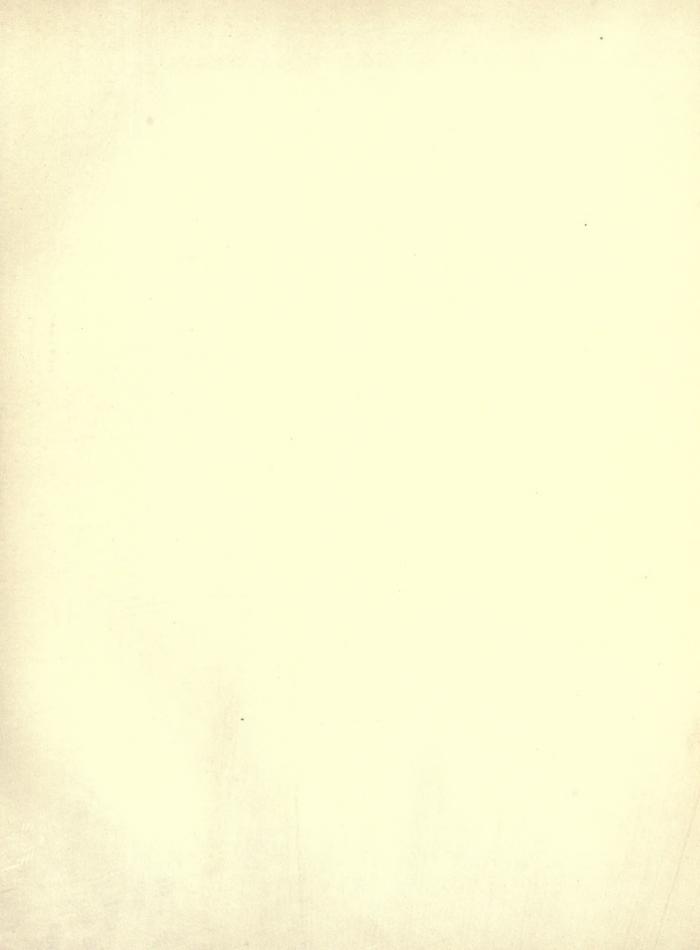
"Since I was last in this place, to use a phrase which has become classical, 'a good many things have happened.' It is just about a year ago since I stood here to submit myself to your judgment in the unfamiliar situation of a newly-fledged official; and now that I have perished in my infancy, men may safely pronounce me happy. Well, gentlemen, the storm It was one of those circular hurricanes which sometimes ravage the came down upon us. political tropies, and blow from all quarters in turn. Those who watched the barometer of the public mind had for some time observed that, as the weather reports say, 'pressure was everywhere falling,' and warning voices had been heard, from this platform amongst others, against carrying too much top-hamper. However, it caught us all standing; we were taken aback, and dismasted in a twinkling. No doubt it has been a great catastrophe. A large part of the crew have been washed overboard. Some of them escaped, as the patient Joh remarks, 'by the skin of their teeth.' A few were east upon the desert island of the House of Lords; and my old colleague, whom we all remember and regret, is living a sort of Robinson But the Oxford lifeboat pieked me out of the wreek, and here I am to hang up my dripping garments and return thanks in the temple of the Corn Exchange; no longer, it is true, Solicitor-General, but, what I care about a good deal more, by your indulgence, still member for the city of Oxford."

The speech itself is to a very large extent an elaborate defence of the Whig party against those who used that term almost as one of opprobrium; and perhaps no better title could be adopted to embody the exact cast of Sir William's political opinions than this, which is, perhaps, not altogether so obsolete as some people think. It has been said, and with some truth, that he was more bitter on his political friends than on his political opponents. He denounced the radicalism of the late Government, and in the very speech now under consideration

he said: "I have been shocked to see the language addressed to those who are unwilling to be precipitated into extreme courses. It is assumed that the hopes of power will induce them to consent to anything or everything of which they disapprove. The people who hold this tone know very little of the spirit and character of the party against whom they vent their taunts. They will find that men of moderate opinions have something far more at heart than the acquisition of office, and that is to prevent the government of this great empire from falling into the hands of politicians who, rejecting the traditions of the Liberal party, run after every new-fangled doctrine and every raw speculation."

Perhaps a more terse and graphic illustration of the via media principle has never been given than is contained in the peroration of this address when, after travelling once more over the whole ground covered by the Public Worship Regulation Bill, the speaker concluded: "No doubt we live in troubled times—in days when the minds of men are agitated and perplexed. The causes of this distraction are not far to seek. Society is tossed to and fro between Scylla and Charybdis—the priests and the philosophers. These two have kept natures of the shuttlecock order in an everlasting see-saw between superstition and unbelief. Shocked by the dreary vacuity of the one, weak minds seek refuge in the degrading stimulants of the other. It has been the fortune of our race that they have nourished a traditional distrust of priests and an instinctive aversion to philosophers. Long may they continue to do so! They will still preserve a national character at which speculation may sneer, but which history, that records the experience of States, will respect; a native vigour which is proof against an effeminate casuistry, and upon which sophism expends its subtleties in vain; the simple and masculine temper of a stable-minded and a God-fearing people, who have known how in their polity to maintain a sober freedom, and in their religion a reasonable faith."

Sir William Vernon-Harcourt has been twice married. His first wife was Thérèsa, daughter of Lady Thérèsa Lewis; his second, Mrs. Ives, daughter of Mr. John Lothrop Motley, for some time United States Minister at the Court of St. James. The former marriage took place in 1859; the latter in December, 1876.





JW Farrar

THE REV. CANON FARRAR, D.D.

DERHAPS account the younger of those men of mark, who are not far to seek in the ranks of the Church of England clergy, no one exhibits more versatility than Dr. Farrar, the late Master of Marlborough College, and the subject of our present Memoir. As a classical scholar, a writer of fletion and history, and a philologist as well as a theologian and a pulpit orator, he has gained distinction school would have ensured him eminence had his talents turned only in one direction, last which, expetiating over so wide and diversified a field, justifies the remark that he exemplaces to the very best sense the maxim, to be "all things to all men." In times of advanced of villeation, the cause of religion and morality must command such champions as this, if it is to prevail over the less eligible elements which always enter into the composition of such epochs. There is still work for the quiet student or cloistered recluse; but in many cases the ecclesiastic who would do good in his day and generation, must come to the front, and take rank with the leaders in thought and action. He must prove that a man does not of necessity cease to be a brilliant scholar, or a profound thinker, because he is a devoted Christian. It is the privilege of such men to present, at the shrine of their faith, the Magian offering of gold, frankincense, and myrrh, of secular as well as sacred accomplishments. Dr. Farrar's work has brought him into contact with many of our most eminent men of science; but he has ever kept true to the old moorings, and the signal success which has accompanied him throughout his career proves, to a very satisfactory degree indeed, what is the kind of men the Church and the world combine in delighting to honour.

Looking at the subject of our biography from the standpoint of his present position, we see this "many-sidedness" in its entirety, and "the varnish," as Shakespeare says, "of the complete man;" but it will be very interesting to note its development in detail. The method of that development has been orderly. It is only men of a single faculty who can afford to be spasmodic. Where the outcome is manifold, the result would be chaos, unless all were done "decently and in order" (εὐσχημόνως καὶ κατὰ τάξιν).

The Reverend Frederic William Farrar, D.D., F.R.S., then, merges for the moment into plain Mr. Farrar, as we retrace his biography from the earliest time at which it can be said properly to form the subject of our brief sketch. He was born in the Fort of Bombay, in the year 1831; his father, who has been for many years rector of Sidcup, in Kent, being then a missionary of the Church Missionary Society. He was sent, while very young, to King William's College, Castletown, Isle of Man, a school of which it is interesting to know that many of the external surroundings are reproduced in "Eric; or, Little by Little," the first of Mr. Farrar's absorbingly interesting schoolboy tales. Many boys-and not a few children of larger growthwho still linger over the pages of "Eric," are, we believe, prone to identify the locale with another celebrated seaside public school in the North of England; but there is no doubt that, so far, at all events, as the locality is concerned, "Eric" is autobiographical. The Isle of



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Roslyn is the Isle of Man. At this school young Farrar remained for several years, a happy antithesis to the proverbial rolling stone. He gathered moss in the shape of all the scholastic rewards this excellent institution had to offer, and was for two years head of the school. At the age of sixteen he left what had now become almost his home among the Manxmen, and entered at King's College, London, then perhaps at the zenith of its fame, and having recently compassed that proud position amongst our educational establishments which it has since so well sustained. Here Mr. Farrar was under the teaching of Dr. Jelf, Archdeacon Browne, Professor Plumptre, and, above all, of Professor Maurice, whose friendship, up to the time of his death, Mr. Farrar enjoyed, and whose influence has evidently been powerfully felt all along what has proved so successful aud brilliant a career. Mr. Farrar—we still elect to speak of him as such—was, in this respect, only one of a large band of distinguished disciples who grew up intellectually at the feet of this distinguished teacher. It was impossible to attend for three years his lectures on literature and history without gaining advantages from contact with his mind; but even beyond this result of personal association it is evident to any one who carefully studies the works of the pupil that he has been largely imbued with the spirit pervading those of the master. It is, indeed, a marvellous illustration of the old Horatian maxim :-"Quo semel est imbuta recens servabit odorem testa diù,"

where we find the neophyte, as we may say, thus popularising the doctrines of the hierophant; it is, however, only the example of Socrates and Plato acted over again. It was through the influence of Professor Maurice that Mr. Farrar was also led to the study of Coleridge, who has evidently had a deeper influence on his faith and opinions than any English writer on philosophical and theological subjects. In so brief a space one has not the opportunity of proving this position in detail; but it will be exceedingly interesting for those who devote themselves to the study of character, if they will recollect, in their appraisement of Dr. Farrar's career, the early influences at work in forming his opinions. It does not in the least detract from the originality of his own views; but it affords a singularly graphic illustration of his adaptability and power of assimilating the mental pabulum supplied by others.

Whilst at King's College, Mr. Farrar gained the Classical and Divinity Scholarships, and also the Classical Exhibition at the University of London, having been placed first in the examination both for matriculation and for honours. The work well begun in the enchanted Isle of Roslyn was thus satisfactorily continued amid the less romantic surroundings of the Straud: and although, from the nature of its constitution, the University of London can scarcely stand to its alumni in the relation of Alma Mater to the same degree as the older Universities, it is still interesting to know that Mr. Farrar did feel the filial tie so far that he returned à ses premiers amours, and, whilst an undergraduate at Cambridge, took his degree as B.A. at the University of London, and gained the Senior Classical Scholarship. It takes a long time to stamp with their real ad valorem dignity the diplomas of other than our two "ancient Universities," as they are technically termed; but those who know how very real a certificate of excellence a London University degree is will appreciate the amount of promise it guaranteed when compassed by a Cambridge undergraduate as a sort of "side-thought" while he was pursuing the even tenor of his ordinary academical career.

It was in October, 1851, that Mr. Farrar went to Trinity College, Cambridge, of which corporation he became a Foundation Scholar in the following year. In 1854 he took his degree as fourth junior optime, and fourth in the first class of the Classical Tripos. This, to unacademical readers, may be interpreted to mean that, while Mr. Farrar's mathematical attainments were so far

above the average as to entitle him to fair honours at the University which is supposed to reserve its chief rewards for mathematical excellence, still the bent of his mind was classical, and his success in this department marked and brilliant. Besides many college prizes, Mr. Farrar gained the Chancellor's English Medal for the best English prize poem, in 1852; the Le Bas prize, and the Norrisian prize; the subject of the latter being "The Doctrine of the Atonement." He was elected Fellow of Trinity College in 1856.

It is worth while to linger here for one moment, and dwell on a phase of Mr. Farrar's intellectual character, to which we may not be able to recur—that is, the poetical. Taking up a volume of Cambridge prize poems, we find the name of Frederic William Farrar standing under date 1852, and almost closing a list whereon appear for previous years such honoured titles as William Whewell, Thomas Babington Macaulay, Winthrop Mackworth Praed, Christopher Wordsworth, Alfred Tennyson, and Edward Henry Bickersteth—all, by a remarkable coincidence, members of his own college. His subject was one of present interest—"The Arctic Regions, and the Hope of Discovering the Lost Adventurers." The closing words have now a melancholy significance, when read after all hope has long since fled, and the "weeping lady," whom the young Cambridge scholar so poetically depicted, has gone to join her beloved husband.

It now remained to be seen in what direction Mr. Farrar's energies would run. He was not likely to sit down under his academical laurels, among the cloisters of Trinity, or by the banks of Cam. He chose a widely different arena, and entered as an actual teacher the world of scholastic life. In the very year in which he took his degree, Mr. Farrar was invited by Dr. Cotton (afterwards Bishop of Calcutta) to become an assistant-master at Marlborough College, where he helped him in the teaching of the Sixth Form. He enjoyed up to the time of his death the friendship and confidence of that admirable prelate; and in a letter written in 1865 the Bishop thus referred to Mr. Farrar: "I never knew any one who had a greater power of stimulating intellectual exertion and literary taste. The impulse which he imparted to my Sixth Form was quite extraordinary. When boys first joined it they seemed in a very short time to be imbued by him with a new intellectual life, and a real desire of knowledge and improvement for their own sakes."

Coming events seemed to east their shadows before in early association with Marlborough; but the event itself was a long way off nevertheless. Towards the close of the year 1855, Mr. Farrar was appointed by Dr. Vaughan an assistant-master at Harrow. There he continued to labour during fifteen years, and his house was one of the most popular for boarders. is not to be wondered at, for, besides the distinguished academical antecedents which Mr. Farrar possessed, and which English public schoolboys know so well how to appreciate; besides the actual and immediate influence which Mr. Farrar exerted over his pupils, both in school and house, there were those fascinating books—of which we shall presently speak—that kept coming out at intervals, and which proved to his pupils that their master was not one of the old Pedagogue and Dominie School, so wittily described by some one as "Arma virumque cano" -arms, and a man with a cane-but a real, living man, with a heart as well as a head, who understood boys, and appreciated their difficulties, and so did not fall into the mistake of treating them like machines. He was a schoolmaster of the Arnold type, and the influence he exerted at Harrow under the judicious head-mastership of Dr. Vaughan and of Dr. Butler, is a tradition at the school to the present hour, and was referred to in a testimonial given in 1870 by the former, previous to the appointment of Mr. Farrar to the Head-mastership of Marlborough College. "His character," said Dr. Vaughan, "is most lovable. He wins to himself all who approach him.

Here, while doing good service as assistant, and devoting the soul in aspirations after God." Here, while doing good service as assistant, and devoting the very prime of his life to his great work, Mr. Farrar was actually serving his apprenticeship as Archididascalus, and gathering those sound principles of management and method which he subsequently so ably carried out in another sphere. He was ordained deacon in 1854 by the Bishop of Salisbury, and priest in lestore to limit the ruled. And it would be with no selfish motive, but also the hearts of those whom he ruled and generous in the hearts of those whom he ruled. And it would be with no selfish motive, but with the single-minded deacon in 1854 by the Bishop of Salisbury, and priest in 1857 by the Bishop of Ely, in which latter year he also took his M.A. degree.

In the meantime honours fell thickly upon him. The impetus once given, it is not in the nature of such a man as this to stand still; and Fortune continually teaches the lesson which we are often so slow to learn, that it is for the workers she reserves her rewards. Genius is a gift, no doubt; but it is remarkable how often we find genius, if not synonymous, yet bound up very closely with hard work: and hard work is never spasmodic. It proceeds systematically. Mr. Farrar's work and reward progressed pari passu. In 1858, he was appointed Honorary Fellow of King's College, a fitting tribute to the lustre which his subsequent career had shed over the scenes of his early training. He became a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1864; University Preacher in 1868; Honorary Chaplain to the Queen in 1869; and Hulscan Lecturer in 1870.

In 1871 he was appointed to the Head-mastership of Marlborough College. We have already referred to the high terms in which Dr. Vaughan spoke of Mr. Farrar at the time of his candidature for this high post. It may not be uninteresting to glance at one or two of the other testimonials—and they were not a few in number—which were addressed to the Council of Marlborough College at this time, exhibiting as they do the great esteem in which Mr. Farrar was held by the distinguished men with whom he had, during his previous career, been closely associated. "As an accurate and scientific scholar, a man of letters, and one of the first speakers and preachers of our time," wrote Dr. Butler, the Headmaster of Harrow, "he cannot fail to bring fame and force to any institution, however high, with which he may be now or hereafter connected." Professor Max Müller said that Mr. Farrar's name would "add lustre to any school in England;" and the testimony of Professor Lightfoot, and of others equally renowned in their various spheres, was not less flattering. Perhaps none, however, was more gratifying than that of Professor Maurice, who expressed his belief that Mr. Farrar would be "well able to combine the culture of other days with the special wisdom of ours"—a singularly graceful tribute to the genius of his former pupil.

In 1872 Mr. Farrar became Chaplain in Ordinary to the Queen; in 1873 and 1875 was again appointed University preacher; and in 1876 resigned the Head Mastership of Marlborough College, having been appointed by the Queen Canon of Westminster and Rector of St. Margaret's, Westminster. In 1874 he took his D.D. degree. Strangely enough, and as if in renewed evidence of his activity, he was, we believe, the first who took the theological degrees in accordance with the new regulations at Cambridge. In old soporiferous times the degrees of B.D. and D.D. were simply matters of academical standing and fees. One glided gracefully from the faculty of

Arts to that of Divinity without any formal proof of fitness. But now the University may say, nous avons changé tout cela. The degrees of B.D. and D.D. are earned by a special treatise written for each on a prescribed thesis, which has to satisfy the University Professors. There is nothing perfunctory about any of Dr. Farrar's work, and his reputation, just like these two theological distinctions, has been earned. Every position has been carried at the point of the bayonet.

We have now to speak of his works of fiction. His earliest was "Eric; or, Little by Little," in 1858, and this was a type of others which were to follow. It was an attempt—and a highly successful one as the event proved—to give a truthful delineation of school life as the author had seen it; and so to help English boys, and tide them over some of the shoals and quicksands of scholastic life. Though written nearly twenty years ago, the book continues to pass through new editions, the fifteenth having been reached in 1876. "Eric" is a very treasure to the bewildered pedagogue who wants to give a prize to his boys which they will value, and which at the same time will do them good. The pill is judiciously gilded, and there is none of the instruction-blended-with-amusement element which awakens the suspicion of young Hopeful that he is only getting a lesson in disguise instead of a "reading" book. Encouraged by the success of "Eric," the author wrote "Julian Home," which also went through several editions, and "St. Winifred's; or, the World of School," which, though at first published anonymously, was also highly successful.

But we have not nearly exhausted the forms of Proteus. Perhaps the metamorphosis on which we have now to dwell is a somewhat unlooked-for one. Greek grammar rules, and a Greek syntax, are publications which we might have expected from an intelligent instructor of small boys in the mysteries of a dead language. Somebody said that, even if a man were only going to be a knife-grinder, a knowledge of the classics would enable him to turn the grindstone more skilfully; and though it is several centuries since, at the Renaissance, it became fashionable to return an answer in the affirmative to the question, "Canst thou speak Greek?" there is something to be said about the method of teaching and learning the old Hellenic language still, and Dr. Farrar's books on this subject have again passed through many editions, and are in large use at some of the great public schools. In his Greek Syntax, Dr. Farrar introduced the plan of always illustrating all classical idioms by parallels from English and modern literature, which has since been largely followed in other grammars. Dr. Farrar is, as we have seen, essentially a man of many editions. But he is more than classical: he is philological; and several of his later works have borne upon that study which has of recent years revived in England. The Pagan Renaissance, as M. Taine calls that of the sixteenth century, has enlarged its borders of late, and comparative philology and mythology have become acclimatised in England. It was in this direction—almost a revolutionary one for a Cambridge Fellow-that Dr. Farrar's energies were next turned. He himself quoted, aptly enough, in one of his works, the words of Charles V .: - " Autant de langues que l'homme scait parler, autant de fois est il homme"-in proportion to the number of languages which a man knew, in that proportion was he more of a man. The earliest of these philological exercitations was a work on "The Origin of Language," now out of print. It was written in 1860, before Professor Max Müller's lectures had made the subject so popular as it afterwards became; and certain points raised in this little volume led the author into a perfectly amicable controversy with the professor; the latter was subsequently, however, one of the first to testify to the good service which Dr. Farrar rendered in utilising the results of comparative philology for the practical teaching of

Latin and Greek. The same subject was continued in a succeeding work, entitled, "Chapters on Language," and also in some lectures, delivered before the Royal Institution, on "The Families of Speech." As instances of the tendency of a purely original mind to avoid the ordinary grooves and ruts of academical thought, the volumes we refer to are very remarkable. Take an illustration, culled almost at random from one of these philological works. In speaking of metaphor ("The Origin of Language," p. 116), he says: "In mathematics there is a line known as the asymptote, which continually approaches to a curve, but, being produced for ever, does not cut it, though the distance between the asymptote and the curve becomes, in the course of this approach, less than any assignable quantity. Language, in relation to thought, must ever be regarded as an asymptote. They can no more perfectly coincide than any two particles of matter can be made absolutely to touch each other." Is it, we wonder, fanciful to attribute this leavening of old academical thought with the fresher elements of intellectual life to Dr. Farrar's combined and for some time contemporary experiences in early life at the Universities of Cambridge and London respectively? Whatever its origin, there is no sort of doubt that this quasi-revolutionary character transferred itself to Perhaps no one who has not gone through the ordeal of public schoolhis educational work. life, either as teacher or pupil, can appreciate to what an extent both the one and the other are bound-or were, up to a comparatively recent date, bound-hand and foot in the trammels of old traditions, or what a temptation there was for a master to adopt as his maxim, quieta non movere—to simply rest and be thankful. Our antecedents, however, would certainly lead us to the foregone conclusion that such would not be Dr. Farrar's attitude when he brought his mind to bear on the great work of education. He was not likely to stagnate; and, as a fact, he did not. He has written two educational works only; but their effect is not to be measured numerically. The first was, "A Lecture on Public School Education," delivered before the Royal Institution, with notes (1867); and the other, "Essays on a Liberal Education," edited and partly written by himself, though among his more distinguished collaborators were Professor Seeley and Lord Houghton. These works produced a most important effect, as they contributed largely to the modification in English schools of the bad system prevalent up to that time, by which all boys alike, whether suited or un-suited for such tasks, were detained for fruitless years over Latin verse-writing, and, of course, did not advance a single step.

Viewing the matter from his own humorous standpoint, Sydney Smith, in speaking of Public School Education, said, in effect, that most boys who went to a public school made about ten thousand Latin verses during the time they were there, and, if they were wise, they never made another after they left. This was a bit of the revived paganism M. Taine spoke of, which has come down to us from the days of poor little Edward VI. who was, in this respect, "schoolmastered like a bishop;" and it was just one of those picturesque but effete institutions sure to tempt the mild iconoclasm of a man like Dr. Farrar. Art is long, and life is short—far too short to leave time for making Latin Elegiacs and Greek lambics which would never be of any practical use; and this is substantially the tone taken by Dr. Farrar in his essay on Latin and Greek Composition. He says: - "What is the daily spectacle presented by the system? Hours upon hours spent by many boys in the moiling evolution of one or two wintry and wooden elegiacs, consisting alternately of halting hexameters and hypermetric pentameters; boys whose utter inability might have been predicted at thirteen kept at the same galley work up to eighteen or nineteen, as unprogressive as the seaman who plied his oar on land; and a multitude of Englishmen bitterly regretful, or good-humouredly contemptuous, at the unpractical and fantastic character of their youthful instruction."

And this, be it remembered, is not the dictum of some Cleon, who, knowing little Latin and less Greek, inveighs against a system, the possible merits of which he could not appreciate. The words are those of a classical honour-man, and Fellow of Trinity, who might, perhaps, have been speaking from bitter experience when he wrote as he did of verse-grinding, though "Roslyn" and King's never elevated that eraft into such importance as it assumed at Eton and Harrow, where verse composition at one time simply exhausted excellence, and almost stood in the place of the cardinal virtues. As an old verse-grinder himself, however, and afterwards, through long years, a master in schools where that pursuit was lauded to the skies, he yet ventures to deprecate it with all the force of his originality and satire, whilst he would elevate into the niche left vacant after his iconoclastic exercises none other than the one dreaded subject of-Science. It is here be joined hands with the great scientific men of the day, though there still remained broad lines of opposition between his science-teaching and theirs. introduction of this subject into English school-teaching was furthered by a small committee, appointed at Dr. Farrar's request, by the British Association, before whom he read a paper on the subject. Of this committee Professors Huxley and Tyndall were joint members with himself; and they drew up a report, which was very widely circulated. The paper which follows Dr. Farrar's own in the "Essays on a Liberal Education" is one on "Teaching Natural Science in Schools;" and we can scarcely avoid the idea that, by its juxtaposition, the editor meant it to stand as in some sort a corollary to his own previous proposition. In it occur the following pertinent sentences:-"Does it seem strange to hail as a friend to religion that scientific spirit so often denounced as hostile? Yet, how can it be otherwise? Are God and Nature then at strife indeed? At present there is secret, if not avowed, hostility between Religion and Science, or at any rate a distrustful toleration. Nothing but active co-operation will permanently reconcile them."

Brief space remains for viewing Dr. Farrar under what many of his warmest admirers consider his most distinctive aspect—the theologian and the Christian orator. His latest works have been more or less theological. Among these we may enumerate "The Fall of Man," "University and other Sermons;" and, very noticeably, the Hulsean Lectures for 1870, entitled "The Witness of History to Christ." In such a composition as the last, we see the academical and oratorical styles of the preacher well exemplified. Take, for instance, such a sentence as this, where he rolls back the reproach of narrowness upon the opponents of Christianity:—

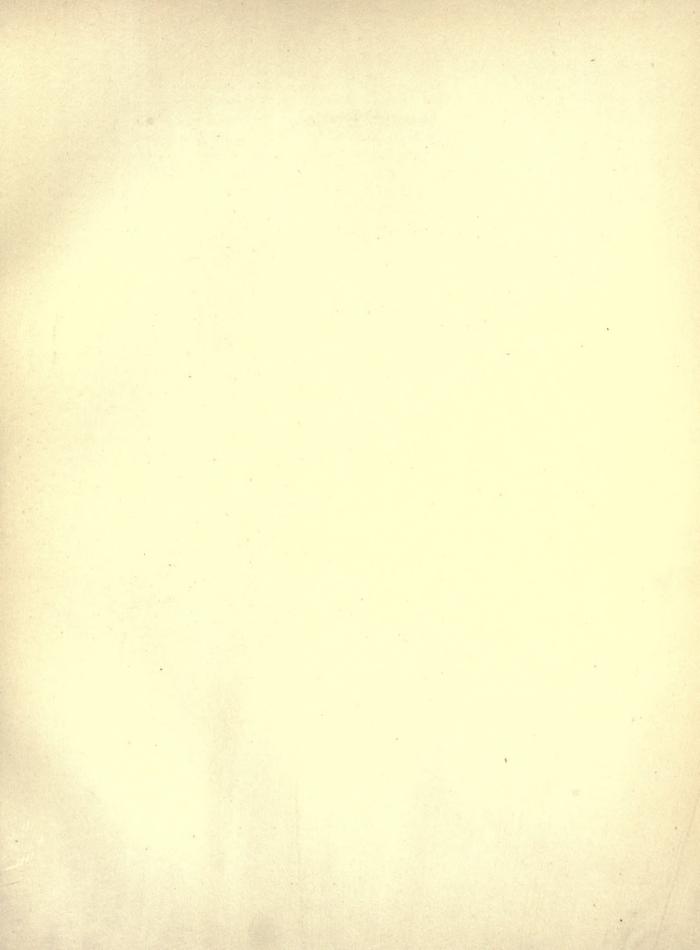
"Believe me, if there be a theological, there is also such a thing as scientific narrowness. There is a noble Science, and there is a Science inflated and ignorant; and, little as their authors knew of the sublimest laws of nature, yet this kind of Science is a thing as much lower than the Pentateuch or the Book of Psalms, as a treatise on astronomy, however accurate, is a smaller thing than midnight with all its stars."

In this last expression will be discovered a symptom at least of what is a distinguishing mark of Dr. Farrar's pulpit oratory, namely, somewhat florid language. This pervades all his writings on almost every subject, but is more discernible, as well as more appropriate, in his rhetorical addresses; and, when aided by an earnest and emphatic delivery, accounts for the great charm exerted by Dr. Farrar over the vast congregations which always assemble whenever it is known that he is going to preach. This peculiarity is discernible in the very title of a volume of Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge. It is called "The Silence and Voices of God." In this collection is strikingly exemplified, too, Dr. Farrar's consummate power of using narrative in his sermons. Just as his rhetorical ornamentation never degenerates into anything approaching

bombast, so this facility in narration never multiplies itself so as to make a sermon a mere collection of anecdotes. The effect of such stories as Dr. Farrar's, told as he can tell them from the pulpit, would be as magical on any child in the congregation as that of "Eric," or any other production of his magical pen. It is the strange occult force of personal influence which Dr. Farrar possesses in so remarkable a degree, and manages to infuse into all he does, be it schoolwork, storybook, or sermon. Such gifts constitute men the teachers of their fellows. They are born, not made, whatever subsequent training may have to do with their development.

Amongst his other works may be enumerated "Seekers after God" (a volume of the "Sunday Library"—1869), and lastly, and as a splendid climax for the present, the "Life of Christ" (1874), the success of which has been very great, eighteen editions having been called for in less than two years. As an instance of Dr. Farrar's power of popularising abstruse subjects, this work is unique. Strangely enough it is true that many devout persons know almost less of the details in the life of Christ than in the life of Mahomet. In this marvellous book the very latest results of recent criticism are combined with fidelity to the Gospel narrative, and arranged with such infinite grace of style that the volumes are full of fascination; and their unbounded success, which takes us back to the Colloquies of Erasmus for a parallel, ceases to be a matter of surprise. Valuable as are all Dr. Farrar's works, this last production of his pen stands alone as a motive power for good on society at large. Dr. Farrar has also contributed many articles to the "Dictionary of the Bible," "Kitto's Biblical Cyclopædia," the "Encyclopædia Britannica," the "Bible Educator," the Quarterly Review, Fraser's Magazine, Macmillan's Magazine, the Contemporary Review, &c., and has read papers before the Church Congress, Sion College, &c.

His chief work for some years, of course, was as Master of Marlborough College, which prospered, as might have been expected, under his sway. The school attained and kept its fullest maximum of numbers, and the variety and brilliancy of the successes gained by the boys, year after year, were such as might be favourably compared with those of any school in England.





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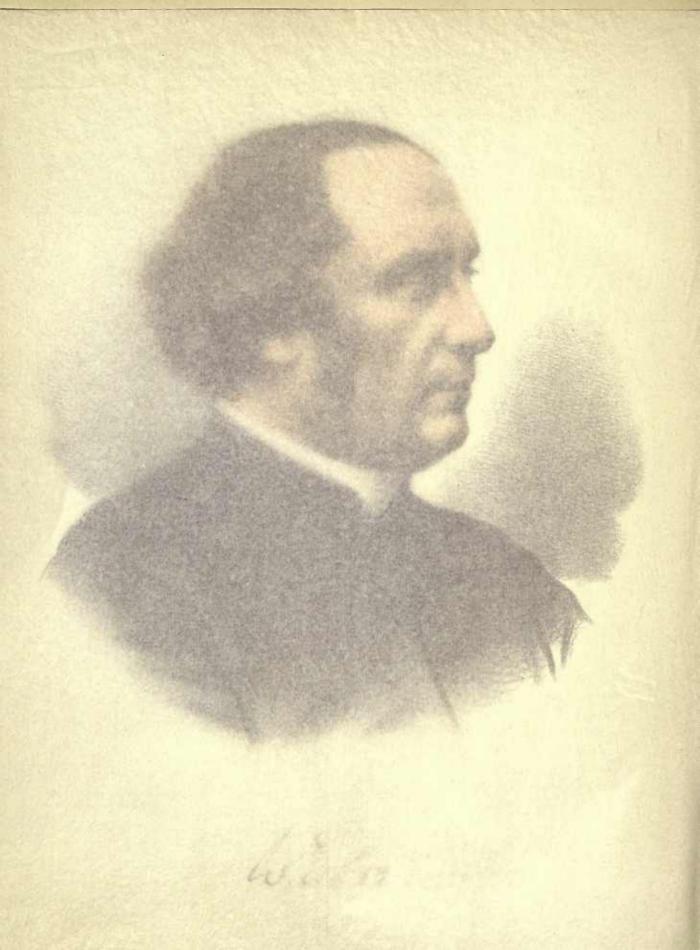
THE ARCHIBERT OF YEAR

FIGHE Right Honomable and Most Recovered Wolfger, Course Cond Archbidger, of Total Con-I Primate of England, is the not of John Wayners, No. of Acrowic House, near West, and and was been in the year 1819. At an inter the distribution of the property of the property of the same and the afterwards moved to Shrewsbury School, the more the object a similaristration of the moves The fature Archhishen had no particular take to the action wholarship," with the successfully enlivated there. Mathematics were larger trapes to show days, and such a special as physical science was unknown; but at the early secret of the second a demand any for that logical and scientific study to which he mosephened on the much of his time to thoughts. On one occasion that excellent scholar, Mr. Stanton of Prochoke, who was also master at Shrewsbury, reproved him for being drawn off from a Theoretical lesson by the of another book, and was much surprised to find that the base which old Thueverse been discarded by the young scholar was Combe's "Constitution " Having " Having at Shrewsbury for about six years, he went to Oxford in 1836, he went to ox and entered at Queen's College, in order to take advantage of the serving having here being Cumberland to obtain a scholarship and fellowship. In the followship The University carriculum was not exactly to his taste, and to the state of the sta time to the study of logic, and of the works of Plate and the study of logic, and of the works of Plate and the study of logic, and of the works of Plate and the study of logic, and of the works of Plate and the study of logic, and of the works of Plate and the study of logic and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of logic and the works of Plate and the study of the works of Plate and the appear in his now well-known work, "An Outline of the last of the same of the last of the very approach), and is used as a text-book in south and the second secon This was published soon after he took his degree at the soon at the so one could succeed to a Fellowship who had not been added to a Fellowship who had not been a fell the class list. To attain this Mr. Thomson is but a small distinction, but in this case it was the first the same of the presented by the candidate was too limited to for the purpose, however, and in due course a decision of the

In 1840 Mr. Thomson took the degree of The Committee of t being made deacon by Bishop Bagot. In lived long enough to assist at the confirment. exhained to a Guildford entracy. For these tracks are not as a second of the second of share he came under the notice of any a second seco then Archderoon of Survey. As you was a second state of the second secon while the arrangement was fally as a second of the second

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THE ARCHBISHOP OF YORK.

THE Right Honourable and Most Reverend William Thomson, Lord Archbishop of York, and Primate of England, is the son of John Thomson, Esq., of Kelswick House, near Whitehaven, and was born in the year 1819. At an early age he received his preparatory education, and was afterwards moved to Shrewsbury School, then under the vigorous administration of Dr. Butler. The future Archbishop had no particular taste for the "Cambridge scholarship," which was so successfully cultivated there. Mathematics were little taught in those days, and such a subject as physical science was unknown; but at this early period of his life he showed a decided taste for that logical and scientific study to which he subsequently devoted much of his time and thoughts. On one occasion that excellent scholar, Mr. Henney, of Pembroke, who was then a master at Shrewsbury, reproved him for being drawn off from a Thucydides lesson by the study of another book, and was much surprised to find that the book for which old Thucydides had been discarded by the young scholar was Combe's "Constitution of Man." Having remained at Shrewsbury for about six years, he went to Oxford in 1836, being then seventeen years of age, and entered at Queen's College, in order to take advantage of the privilege of having been born in Cumberland to obtain a scholarship and fellowship. In the following year he was elected scholar. The University curriculum was not exactly to his taste, and he devoted a great portion of his time to the study of logic, and of the works of Plato and Aristotle, some results of which appear in his now well-known work, "An Outline of the Laws of Thought," which has been very successful, and is used as a text-book in several universities in this country and in America. At this time a rule prevailed that no This was published soon after he took his degree. one could succeed to a Fellowship who had not obtained a certain moderate distinction in To attain this Mr. Thomson addressed himself, and succeeded. is but a small distinction, but in this case it was not a disappointment; indeed, the list of books presented by the candidate was too limited to allow the hope of any higher place; it was sufficient for the purpose, however, and in due course a Fellowship followed.

In 1840 Mr. Thomson took the degree of B.A., and two years after entered Holy Orders, being made deacon by Bishop Bagot. In 1843 he was ordained priest by Bishop Sumuer, who lived long enough to assist at the confirmation as the Archbishop of York of him whom he had ordained to a Guildford curacy. For three years he was curate of St. Nicholas' in that town, and there he came under the notice of one of the greatest men of the day, Samuel Wilberforce, who was then Archdeacon of Surrey. By him Mr. Thomson was offered a curacy at Alverstoke, but while the arrangement was being made the Rector of Alverstoke became Bishop of Oxford, and Mr. Thomson followed him to Cuddesdon as curate, the bishop being then the vicar of that parish, in which the episcopal palace was situated. Here he did not remain long, for a year later (in 1847) he was asked to return to his college as tutor, a position which he occupied for over eight years, during which period he successively became dean and bursar.

The state of Queen's College at the time when Mr. Thomson was dean was such that all who were interested in education desired a change. The close system which gave over the college to two counties was seen to be the cause of its unsatisfactory condition from an educational point A native of one of the favoured counties, Mr. Thomson knew that they did not need the protection bestowed on them, while that protection was a perpetual reproach to both the college and the counties. To remove this reproach Mr. Thomson resolutely set himself. The Rev. G. H. S. Johnson, afterwards the Dean of Wells, one of the tutors of Queen's College, had long striven to break up the close system—the evil of which may be judged by the fact that at this time, out of 542 Fellowships in the University of Oxford, only twenty were open-but his efforts had been ineffectual. At last, in a case where there was no one qualified for a Fellowship ready to take it, the moment seemed opportune for opening the college to merit from every quarter. Mr. Goldwin Smith, one of the most distinguished of the young graduates, competed for the place. But the older Fellows, rather than surrender a tradition which had no foundation in law, brought up a candidate who had been rejected before for insufficient attainments, and he was elected, by a majority of one, against one of the most distinguished scholars that Oxford could produce. This scandalous proceeding probably was the proximate cause of the measures of University reform that soon followed. Lord John Russell, through a friend, invited Mr. Thomson to give him an account of the facts of the case, and not long after it was announced. very unexpectedly, that the Premier had advised the Queen to issue a "Royal Commission to enquire into the state, discipline, studies, and revenues of the University and Colleges of Oxford." The commission was issued in 1850, the members of it being almost all of the school of Arnold a fact which caused much apprehension, even in the minds of many who were well pleased at the prospect of the reformation of acknowledged abuses. When the inquiry was proposed, there were a large number of the members of Convocation who, wedded to the traditions of the past, and unable to recognise the changes that lapse of time called for in order to maintain the spirit and object of the founders of Oxford's colleges, were filled with dismay and indignation at the prospect of the cobwebs being cleared away from those grand old halls and colleges, and from some of these appeared feeble defences of existing abuses. These were met by the advocates of University reform; but by none more ably than by Mr. Thomson, who, in a pamphlet entitled "An Open College," argued earnestly for the abolition of all preferences and local restrictions in regard to the emoluments of the University. This pamphlet attracted considerable attention at the time, and was largely quoted in the debates on University reform which took place in the House of Commons. But notwithstanding all opposition, and in the teeth of deep-seated conscientious prejudice, the Oxford University Reform Bill was passed in 1854; some reformers, however, regarding it as going too far, others as not going far enough. The Act gave power to make new statutes for the colleges, and in framing those for Queen's College Mr. Thomson took a very active part; the preference in respect of its Fellowships for natives of Cumberland and Westmoreland, "on account of devastation of the founder's county, the indigence of persons in it, and the unusual scarcity of education in it," was swept away, and almost all the prizes of Queen's, as of the other colleges of Oxford, were freed from local or natal restrictions.

The year after Mr. Thomson's return as Tutor of Queen's College, he was appointed Select Preacher to the University, which distinguished post he was again called upon to fill in 1856. Previous to the latter date he was chosen Bampton Lecturer—an honourable office which the University bestows upon her most eminent men. The crowded benches of St. Mary's when Mr. Thomson delivered his lectures attested the interest felt in them, and contrasted in a remarkable

way with the attendance on some of those who had preceded him as Bampton Lecturer. last lecture was preached on the Sunday preceding Lord Derby's installation as Chancellor of the University, and in the Times of June 7th, 1853, it was stated that "although, from the concourse of visitors that invariably takes place at Oxford at the commemoration time, St. Mary's Church is always well filled on the preceding Sunday, it is remarked that so large a congregation has never been attracted since the corresponding Sunday, when the famous 'Development' sermon was preached by Mr. Newman." The subject chosen by Mr. Thomson for these lectures was "The Atoning Work of Christ." They were afterwards published, and have since been avowedly used by other writers on the same subject; and even Professor Maurice, at the end of his "Doctrine of Sacrifice," while admitting the great difference between his own teaching and Mr. Thomson's, bears strong testimony to the importance of the work. The view put forward in these lectures is the expiatory character of Christ's sufferings, a view which, in the beginning of this century, was ably advocated by Archbishop Magee, whose work was intended, like Mr. Thomson's, to meet the sophistries of the day. The lectures of the latter might well be preceded by the following prefatory remarks of the former:—"In these latter days, Christianity seems destined to undergo a fiercer trial than it has for many centuries experienced. Its defenders are called upon, not merely to resist the avowed invader who assails the citadel from without, but the concealed and treacherous foe who undermines the works or tampers with the garrison within. The temporising Christian who, under the mask of liberality, surrenders the fundamental doctrines of his creed, and the imposing Rationalist who, by the illusions of a factitious resemblance, endeavours to substitute philosophy for the Gospel, are enemies even more to be dreaded than the declared and systematic Deist." Mr. Thomson's work, when published, attracted much attention, and was well received even by those who would on other matters differ from him. It has been out of print for some time, but his subsequent writings show how much the subject is in his mind, and it is to be hoped that he will publish a new edition of it.

The year 1855 was an eventful one in the life and career of Mr. Thomson. In the month of July he married Miss Zoë Skene, then living with her grandfather, James Skene, of Rubislaw, known to many as the friend of Sir Walter Scott, who dedicated to him the fourth canto of "Marmion." Her father is James Henry Skene, Her Majesty's Consul at Aleppo. Her mother was Rhaleu Rangabé, a Greek lady of distinguished birth. By her Dr. Thomson has a numerous family.

And in this year commenced those appointments which have led up to the Primacy of England. In it he became Chaplain to the Queen, and shortly after, when the important Crown living of All Souls, Langham Place, became vacant, Lord Palmerston, who was then Premier, offered it to Mr. Thomson. The latter was strongly urged by his friends not to sever his connection with his college by accepting it. Dr. Fox, the Provost of Queen's, had long been ill, and the duties of the post had been necessarily discharged by Mr. Thomson. The provost was known now to be sinking from illness, and the younger party amongst the Fellows, on whom rested the appointment of his successor, were anxious that it should be Mr. Thomson. They therefore urged him to remain at college, awaiting the expected vacancy. The prospect put before him could not fail to be attractive to a man of academical habits and feelings; but, on mature reflection, it did not seem right to refuse an important and responsible post like the Rectory of All Souls in the hope of an easier one, and, much to the disappointment of his Oxford friends, the offer of Lord Palmerston was accepted. But he was not to be separated yet from the University for which he had laboured and done so much as a reformer; for shortly

after he had accepted the living of All Souls Dr. Fox died, and, notwithstanding that the part he took in altering the constitution of the college had excited some opposition, he was elected to the vacant headship. At this time Mr. Thomson was only 36—an unusually early age for any one to be elected to such a position as Provost of Queen's College, Oxford.

In 1856 Mr. Thomson took his degree of Doctor of Divinity. In 1858 the Preachership of Lincoln's Inn became vacant, and the Provost of Queen's, who had by this time established a considerable reputation as a preacher, became a candidate for this distinguished post. There were thirty competitors, and from among them the Benchers of the Society elected Dr. Thomson by a very large majority. A volume of the sermons which he preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel has been published, and as one reads them it is easy to imagine the satisfaction with which the Benchers who heard him looked back upon their vote at the election. These sermons are full of noble thoughts expressed in chaste language, and not only address themselves to the intellect, but appeal to the holiest and tenderest feelings.

Besides this volume, Dr. Thomson has also published, under the title of "Life in the Light of God's Word," twenty-five sermons, which range over a period of ten years from 1859. Many of them were preached at Congresses, either Church or Social Science, and are on subjects specially snited to those to whom they were addressed; as, for instance, "The Condition of the Church," "Social Science," "Religion and Science," "Christ Present in our Dangers." The last was preached at the re-opening of Ripon Cathedral, in 1869, when he had been for some time Archbishop of York; in it he alludes to the question of Disestablishment, and while claiming for the Church a vitality independent of the State, speaks strongly of the injury to the latter which would result from separation. "Were the Church of England," he says, "to be rejected now by the nation as the national Church, the imperishable truth would remain in her, and would not be silenced, no, not for an hour." "If hereafter our relation to the State should cease, it is not as members of the Church, but as citizens, that we should grieve the most." "From whatever quarter the necessity for this shall come, it will be an evil day for this State and nation when it comes." "The Crown of England rules, I think, over almost a quarter of the world, and about a fifth of its population. On the day when the Crown abandons all religious preference, and announces religious equality, in that sense that Buddhism and Christianity, being religions of British subjects, are equal in its eyes, England, and therefore the world, will suffer a loss."

The great movement at Oxford, the object of which was the creation of a new constitution for the University, and in which Dr. Thomson bore no small part, was succeeded by the educational movement, which stirred up the usually quiet waters of academical life, excited animated discussions in convocation and in the various common-rooms, and flooded the shops of the booksellers with pamphlets, answers, and rejoinders. In this movement Dr. Thomson was always on the side of an enlargement and extension of the studies of the University. He took an active part in the erection of the new museum, now a great ornament of Oxford, and aided all efforts to bring physical science into its due place in the theological course.

After a few years' enjoyment of the comparatively tranquil position of Provost of Queen's, Dr. Thomson was called to a higher post and increased responsibilities. The see of Gloucester and Bristol became vacant in 1861 by the death of Bishop Monk; and Lord Palmerston, who was still Prime Minister, presented it to Dr. Thomson. The night before his consecration the Prince Consort died, and the first act of the new Bishop in his cathedral was to preach a sermon on the sad event—which was understood to have given much satisfaction to the royal

widow. A year after this Dr. Longley was translated to Canterbury, and the newly-made Bishop of Gloucester and Bristol was appointed in his room, and became Archbishop of York, Primate of England, and Metropolitan. The time during which he held the former see was too short for any important results of his work and influence to be found there. Here it may be well to correct an erroneous and common impression which prevails respecting Dr. Thomson's various promotions. It has been sometimes said that the Archbishop owed his preferments to Court influence; but, except that he preached before the Court, like other well-known clergymen, he had no intercourse whatever with the Royal Family beyond having shown the lions of his college to the Prince Consort when he visited the University; and until he had become archbishop he had not even spoken to Lord Palmerston, who appointed him successively rector, bishop, and archbishop. The cause of these honours must be sought for in other than mere courtly influence, and those who best know the bearer of them will have no difficulty in determining what it was that commended Dr. Thomson to such a liberal-minded statesman as Lord Palmerston. The appointment of an almost untried bishop to the Primacy of England was a matter of surprise, but on the whole it was well received.

At the time of his elevation to the Episcopate Dr. Thomson was engaged in editing an important work, "Aids to Faith," which was published after he became bishop. For some time previous to 1860 opinions had been put forward in pamphlets and other publications which were openly denounced as sceptical, and which certainly dealt boldly and freely with matters which previously had been held sacred. But in that year appeared the since famous "Essays and Reviews," the production of seven well-known writers - a book which, probably, would have passed out of notice if it had not been for an article in the Quarterly Review of January, 1861, which drew attention to it, and startled the nation with the conviction that a return to the "Age of Reason" was contemplated. These seven writers started with the avowed intention of illustrating the advantage to the cause of religious and moral truth derivable from a free handling, in a becoming spirit, of subjects peculiarly liable to suffer by the repetition of conventional language, and from traditional methods of treatment. Not only the historical accuracy of Scripture, but the genuineness of some of its books and of its inspiration was attacked. The press groaned with replies written by bishops and other men of mark in the Church. One London firm of publishers brought out a series of seven connected essays, all written by prominent men; but the work which attracted most attention at the time from thoughtful men, and has since retained its hold on the mind of the Church, was that published under the title of "Aids to Faith," and edited by Dr. Thomson, who also wrote one of the articles. The former was termed "Replies to 'Essays and Reviews,'" and was a direct attack upon the essayists; but the latter work, as its name implies, offers assistance to those whose faith stands in need of confirmation, and avoids direct controversy. The choice of contributors and the arrangement of subjects rested with the editor, and with great judgment did he make his selection, and well did the writers discharge the duty which at his solicitation they undertook. All parties in the Church, save those immediately connected with the original essayists, freely acknowledged the great service which Dr. Thomson had done by this publication, and after it appeared the voice of controversy gradually subsided.

But Dr. Thomson was not yet free from the essayists. Suits had been carried on in the ecclesiastical courts against two of the writers, and these in due time were heard, on appeal, before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, which reversed the judgment which had been given against the essayists by the Court of Arches. Being unable to concur in the advice which the

Judicial Committee gave to the Crown, the two primates recorded their dissent from a portion of its judgment. But the result of these proceedings caused great perplexity and dismay throughout the Church, to allay which the Archbishop addressed a pastoral letter to the clergy and laity of the province of York, in which he set forth the comparatively innocuous character of this judgment so far as doctrine was concerned; while he pointed out that it gave some countenance to the opinion which had been put forward as to Holy Scripture—namely, that the Bible is called the Word of God, not because it is, but because it contains the word of God—an opinion which he went on to show was inconsistent with the formularies of the Church. The charge against one appellant, on the subject of Eternal Punishment, did not seem to him to be sustained; at the same time he stated that "the Church in adopting the word 'everlasting' to express the word that may also be rendered eternal, has cut off, for all purposes of law, some metaphysical speculations to which the original word has been subjected. Everlasting must mean lasting for ever, never coming to an end. The Church of England believes in a life that lasts for ever for the good, and in an everlasting punishment for the wicked."

In the following year (1865) the Archbishop delivered his primary charge to the clergy of the diocese of York, the first part of which shows a thorough grasp of the state of his diocese, which seems to have called for the earnest words of counsel and exhortation. In the latter part he dealt with a few public topics of moment for the Church. Speaking of Convocation, after observing that its present function is that of an adviser, he says of the Convocation of York, "It has dealt with many difficult subjects with great candour and prudence, and I should be sorry to see its meetings languish or come to an end. In reverting to the ancient practice of the two Houses of our Convocation sitting and debating together, I have given, I trust, a fresh interest to our debates. I can bear witness to the great advantage to the bishops which is derived from knowledge of the opinions of the other clergy; and on the other hand, many of the Lower House have expressed to me their satisfaction with a plan which enables them to elicit the views of the bishops as to public measures affecting the Church."

In the earlier part of the same year the Archbishop presided at a meeting held in Sheffield to promote the building of seven churches in that town, and in the course of the proceedings declared himself strongly in favour of the free and open Church movement.

In the autumn of that year the Church Congress was held in York, and beneath the shadow of its glorious minster were gathered not only Yorkshire working men and Churchmen from all parts of England, but there were present, besides English, Irish, and Scotch prelates, episcopal representatives of the churches of America and the United States, the West Indies, and Australia. Over this grand assembly of Churchmen the Archbishop presided with ability and judgment, and made the opening address, which was clear and luminons Speaking of the temper of the times, he said, "The Church of Christ is now passing through a trial, severe, although bloodless, in this and other countries. Every tenet of our religion will be searched and sifted. Already criticism has been busy—not about subordinate questions, but about the Person of our Lord, and the nature of His revelation, and the future life of the sonl. Will faith at last triumph over doubt? I firmly believe so."

At the time when the Archbishop was called to his high office, the great movement which had stirred up the life of the Church was then bringing to the surface questions doctrinal and practical, which were looked upon by many Churchmen as of great importance. In dealing with these there was need of much cool judgment, considerate forbearance, and liberal-mindedness, in order to avoid imperilling the goodly ship among the rocks and sandbanks on

which the storms of controversy threatened to drive her. Some of these came on appeal before the Judical Committee of the Privy Council, of which His Grace is a member, and where his legal turn of mind is of great value—the questions being for the most part dealt with in their legal rather than in their theological aspect. Bishop Gray, Metropolitan of South Africa, raised the first question on which His Grace delivered an Episcopal opinion. Dr. Colenso, Bishop of Natal, published, under peculiar circumstances, certain peculiar opinions respecting the Pentateuch. These he was called on by Bishop Gray, as his metropolitan, to renounce; and not doing so, the latter not only had Dr. Colenso synodically condemned, but proposed to supersede him, and consecrate another bishop in his room. It was on this point that the Archbishop addressed the Bishop of Capetown, urging on him the manifest illegality of the step which he proposed to take. It may be well to refer here to a charge which has been brought forward against the Archbishop, that he returned unopened a letter which Bishop Gray had addressed to him. This was stated in a letter of the bishop which appeared in his "Life," which was edited by his son, a elergyman of the diocese of York; but the Archbishop never heard of it until he read it in that book. The statement gave him great pain, and he at once contradicted it in a letter addressed to the editor, which appeared in the papers of the day.

Subsequently the great ritual eases of Martin v. Mackonochie, of Hebbert v. Purchas, and the doctrinal one of Mr. Bennett, of Frome, came before the Judical Committee, but what views the Archbishop took in these, or in any other of the Church causes which have been before the Council, do not appear, owing to the custom of the judgment in each case being the opinion of the majority, while the minority are not permitted to state their views. But though the proceedings of the Privy Council are never divulged, there can be no doubt, from the utterances of Archbishop Thomson in Convocation and elsewhere, that in all Church questions, whether of ritual or doctrine, he would take the most liberal and comprehensive view, and would not consent to strain the letter of the law so as to censure or condemn the opinions and practices of any school of thought within the Church of England, or to narrow her boundaries. The Archbishop, having been appealed to by some who took alarm at Mr. Bennett's views not being condemned, pointed out that the question was not what is the doctrine of the Church, but whether certain statements supposed to be heretical are so repugnant to the doctrine of the Church that the persons holding them ought to be censured and condemned.

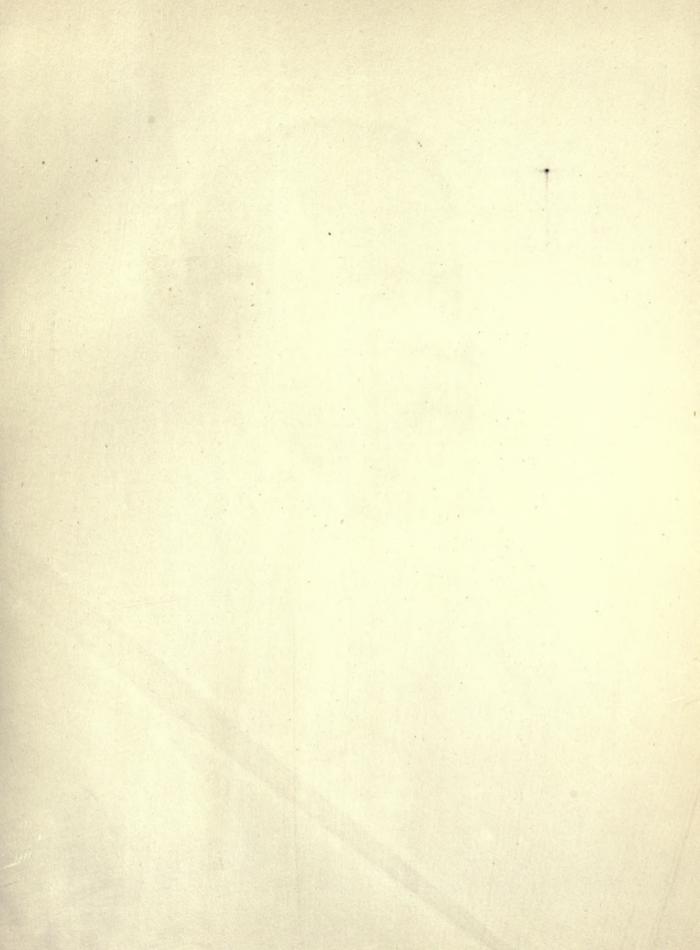
The excitement and alarm raised in the public mind by the eeremonial observances of certain clergymen, and by their avowed determination to refuse assent to the rulings of the Court of Appeal, found expression in the Public Worship Bill (which the House of Commons passed in the early part of 1874); and when this Bill came before the House of Lords, the Archbishop of York had charge of it, and conducted it through committee.

On one of the prominent questions of the day, "private confession," the Archbishop addressed a letter to Earl Fitzwilliam, who had forwarded to His Grace certain resolutious adopted at a public meeting in York, and stated that private confession was contrary to the mind of the Church of England, and was inconsistent with the structure of her Prayer Book. Among the social questions which have of late years been agitated there are none more important than the Temperance movement. Into this the Archbishop has thrown himself with great heartiness, and at a meeting of the Church of England Temperance Society, held in 1876 in Liverpool, he delivered a speech of remarkable ability in support of this great effort to deal with the evil of drunkenness.

Our sketch of Archbishop Thomson has set him forth as a divine and an ecclesiastical

statesman, but there are other phases of his character which have not come prominently before the public. Besides the works of which we have spoken, the Archbishop was the projector of the Speaker's Commentary; he also contributed largely to Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," in which the able articles, "Jesus Christ," and that on the "Gospels," are from his pen. But besides these and other what may be termed professional writings, he has taken a wider range of literary interests than is generally known. His acquaintance with the late Mr. Pickering, the publisher, commenced by his consulting him upon the publication of a volume of poems. Without asking for the MS., that gentleman gave unfavourable advice, and the poems remained unpublished, except so far as some of them have appeared anonymously in periodicals. He was also for a long time a Fellow of the Chemical Society, and made a special study of photography. A theologian, philosopher, and poet, the Archbishop is also a student of physical science, and has a remarkable power of grasping any subject to which he turns his mind. On one occasion, when he addressed the students of St. Mary's Hospital, Paddington, the medical men present exclaimed, "What a good doctor spoilt by being an archbishop!" Another time an ironmaster to whom he was talking said, "If he had been an ironmaster he would have beaten us all." The Archbishop's well-known sermon at Bradford before the British Association was the utterance of one whose sympathy with scientific study was real; and his address to the members of the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution on "The Limits of Philosophical Inquiry," shows how deep a hold his mind had taken of the subject, and how, in his case, impregnated and controlled it was by religion.

That the line of conduct to which the Archbishop has uniformly and constantly adhered should in times of religious excitement be not always acceptable is only to be expected; but His Grace has been the subject of vituperative abuse, which, unchristian in any man's mouth, is also most unseemly in those who profess themselves Episcopalians. The public organ of one extreme section seizes every conceivable or inconceivable opportunity of pouring its unmeasured abuse on His Grace, accusing him of deeds he never dreamt of, and of words he never spoke, and holding him up to scorn as an archbishop of society, and a hunter after popularity; but those who know him well testify that no man was ever more sincere and single-hearted in his efforts to serve God in the position to which he has been called, and few have led a more hard-working and in many respects austere and self-denying life.





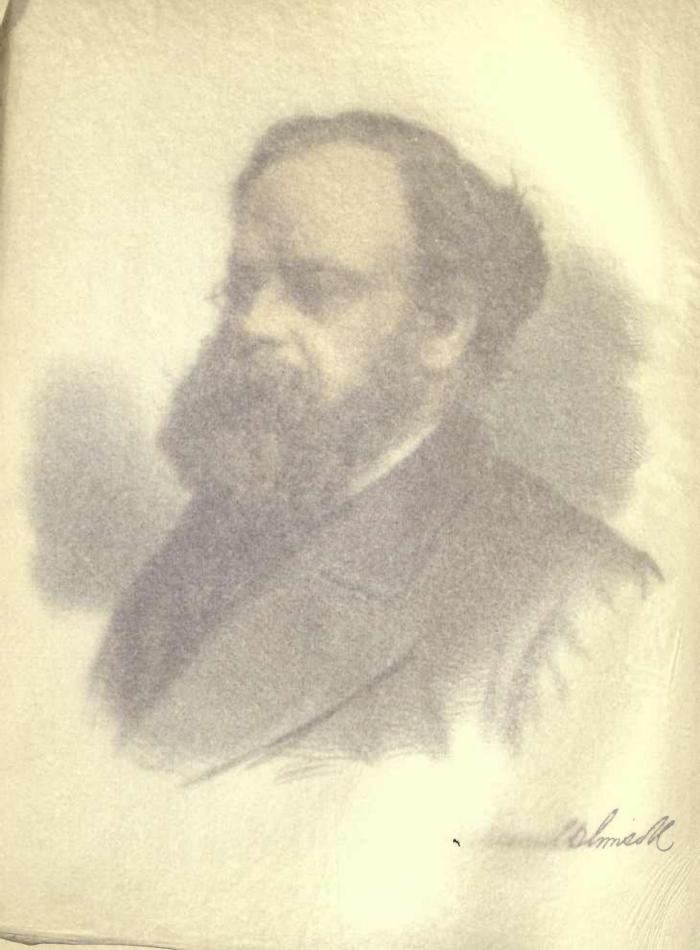
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SAMUEL PLIMSOLL, ESQ., M.P.

THERE has passed into our common language of late years an expression which we are not I. quite sure is a happy one, significant though it undoubtedly may be. Those men in the production of whom England is so exuberant, and who in a more than ordinary sense are the architects of their own fortunes, are spoken of as "self-made men;" and approprie these the a certain sense, typical. It is, of course, only colleguially and in conventional language that such a term is used; and, under these limitations, it would perhaps be unwise to carp at it. And yet probably those men to whom it is applied would be themselves the first to protest against the notion that they had "made" themselves. Are we, in any but the most secondary and merely instrumental sense, the architects of our own fortunes? Are we not rather humble artiflery working under the great Master-builder of all? If it be true, as we believe it to be, that the most thoroughly practical character is that of the consistent prayerful Christian, we can imagine that the epithet would be distasteful to those men almost in direct proportion to its apparent applicability. The pagan of old, indeed, boasted that he was autochthonous sprang from the soil-and that his culture depended upon himself solely. Had the Reformation been what some would have made it-merely a revival of paganism-such a theory might have been handed down to us amongst its traditions; whereas, the direct contrary has been the case. The revival has been one which, while it quickened human energy and intensified individual responsibility, bed the agent to regard himself as immediately co-operating with a higher power than himself in the fortherance of his own fortunes.

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of our birth measure are between fortunes. We have a privage this axiom to the influence of star or planet, we are helical that the same and parents into which the child is born affect its plastic sate. The same the best planets of the biography. It was in that basy western city the same the best specific powers of a certain characteristic energy of its own since the base of the best powers of a certain characteristic energy of its own since the base of the best powers of the carbon for the earliest enlargement of our ideas; and best a secondly bound up with our notions of this adventurous family.



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There is, beyond doubt, a deep truth underlying the old Chaldean notion, that the surroundings of our birth influence our future fortunes. Without applying this axiom to the influence of star or planet, we can readily believe that the scenes and pursuits into which the child is born affect its plastic mind, and mould the coming circumstances of the biography. It was in that busy western city of Bristol, which has been the head-quarters of a certain characteristic energy of its own since the Tudor times, that Mr. Plimsoll was born, in the year 1824. Perhaps we scarcely calculate to what an extent we are indebted to the Cabots for the earliest enlargement of our ideas; and Bristol is inseparably bound up with our notions of this adventurous family.

In many respects their mantle may be said to have fallen on Mr. Plimsoll's shoulders. He did not, it is true, plough the distant seas in search of some fabled land of Cathay, where people should never grow old; but he did what every original genius does—he found out a sphere in which to labour, and worked at it with all his might. His mission has been, if not to cross the seas himself, to provide for the safety of those who are obliged to do so. That is the work by which he has made his name a household word amongst us; but it is not the only one by any means through which he has earned an honoured place in the annals of England. This one work, indeed, is sufficient to place him on the muster-roll of that noble army which includes the names of Howard and Wilberforce. The Romans awarded the civic crown to him who had saved the life of a single citizen. What honours would in their estimation have been adequate for him of whom it is no exaggeration to say that his unselfish efforts have been the means of saving thousands of British sailors from a watery grave?

Mr. Plimsoll belonged to a family patriarchal in its extent. He was one of twelve children, and the income of his father, Mr. Thomas Plimsoll, was, as is often the case, in inverse proportion to the necessities of a quiverful. Such a condition of things means work for the whole voluminous household. Samuel Plimsoll was born in an atmosphere of work, and under circumstances which made labour a Nemesis to him. That fate he accepted cheerfully; and when labour is cheerfully as well as conscientiously done it is certain to eventuate in success.

From Bristol, while yet a child, he proceeded to Penrith, and then to a busier and, if possible, a less romantic scene, namely, that great industrial centre, Sheffield, where, after an interval spent in a solicitor's office, he was clerk to Mr. Birks, a brewer and the mayor of the borough. Here again his very constitution was permeated with the atmosphere of energy; and the elevation of the high stool in a lawyer's office, combined with the somewhat mechanical pursuit of quill-driving, affords opportunities for assimilating those influences by which the clerk is surrounded. In a lower stratum of society still, it is the cobbler over his last, who, as the ideal meditative man, often draws the most practical deductions from passing events. One grade higher, this same lawyer's clerk becomes the reservoir for such practical ideas which sometimes in later years well forth and irrigate the world, large or small, in which the man's lot is cast. Mr. Plimsoll's has been a large world; and the work of irrigation is not over yet.

Nor were we speaking at hap-hazard when we alluded to the combination of prayer and the practical business character. It may sound almost paradoxical to say so, but the man who has the firmest faith in a superintending Providence will also be inclined to use the most constant efforts for the furtherance of its objects in regard to himself. "Cui bono?" may be the cry of the sceptic, but never of the sincere believer. Mr. Plimsoll became a member of the Congregational Church in Sheffield under the ministry of the Rev. Thomas Smith; and his faith was not of the dead inoperative order. It was the faith of a British man, grown up under Sheffield influences. It was essentially a faith that worked. He was devoted to labours of charity and beneficence; and the occasion soon showed itself for putting them to the test. That great flood which destroyed four thousand houses in Sheffield called all the real workers to the front; and there are those yet living to whom the name of young Plimsoll became at that time associated with all that was good and great. To paraphrase a far less kindly adage, Sheffield's necessity was Plimsoll's opportunity.

And your real worker is one who recognises the sacred character of so-called secular labour. He thoroughly endorses the maxim that what God has cleansed it is not for man to call common or unclean. Who shall draw a rigid line between the sacred and the secular in the great field

of labour? The young man's faith developed in works of charity among the sick and suffering: and what some would call by the heathen name of accident served to open up a wide field for his noble ambition. So, too, in the department of purely material results. The man who is fervent in spirit will generally be found active in business too; and the year 1851 formed an epoch for such efforts. The Great Exhibition was the apotheosis of this practical spirit of labour. He became one of the honorary secretaries in Sheffield for the Exhibition; and to his untiring energy it was due that Sheffield contributed the largest instalment of exhibitors amongst all the manufacturing towns in England. The reviewers, when they criticised Tennyson's earliest efforts, said they were studies for pictures, not pictures themselves; if Mr. Tennyson could ever find a subject large enough to impress his mind, he might produce a poem, and so on. Read after the attainment of the laureateship and the publication of the "Idylls" and "In Memoriam," these words make us smile. But the prophecy was a happy one. Perhaps such vaticinations were indulged in by those who knew the Bristol boy, or saw the lawyer's clerk perched on his high stool in the Sheffield mayor's office. He did his apprentice-work well in those spheres; he broadened out that sphere indefinitely by his higher labours among the great community of the needy and necessitous. But, so far as material work was concerned, he wanted a bigger thing on which to expend his maturing energies. That big thing was the great Exhibition. No doubt. if we could trace the unwritten annals of many a successful career, we should find that they reached a sort of climax-or at least received an unquestioned impulse-at the time of that important epoch in the history of the world's industry.

With men of a single idea, too, we often find that the only notion of success they have makes it synonymous with money-getting—one had almost written money-grubbing. The need and value of money it would be Utopian and unreal to deny; but it is the merest fallacy to make it the one object of pursuit. Mr. Plimsoll did not fall into this error. He had spent what are of more value than money—time and energy—in placing Sheffield where she stood in such honourable prominence at the Exhibition; and it was felt that some pecuniary compensation was due to him. The British public is never behindhand in paying money which it recognises as well earned. The honorarium delicately offered by the Commissioners was firmly though courteously declined by Mr. Plimsoll. The refusal showed real wisdom as well as generosity in the truest sense of that latter term. Had he put so many hundred pounds in his pocket he would have been a richer man in one respect; but he certainly would have been poorer as losing that noble consciousness of work unselfishly done which, like all that can be covered by the name of virtue, is emphatically its own reward.

Mr. Plimsoll was due to London. Bristol and Sheffield are all very well in their way; but some men want a population of two or three millions for their intellect properly to expand in. To Loudon Mr. Plimsoll gravitated as naturally as Richard Whittington himself. He did not expect to find the streets paved with gold; he had served too good an apprenticeship for that. He found them strewn with diamonds, it is true, but they were black ones. In plain terms, he came to London, and started as a coal-merchant, at twenty-six years of age, with a very limited capital indeed. But great and small are relative, not absolute, terms. They vary with a man's needs. The curate may really be "passing rich with forty pounds a year;" and a man who had gone through Mr. Plimsoll's experiences would take very different views of a "small" income from those of a rich fainéant, or a Rosa Matilda young lady. Listen to his own words. He says:—"For months and months I lived in one of the model lodging-houses established mainly by the efforts of Lord Shaftesbury. There is one in Fetter Lane, another in Hatton Garden;

and indeed they are scattered all over London. I went there simply because I could not afford a better lodging. I have had to make 7s. 9½d. (3s. of which I paid for my lodging) last me a whole week, and I did it. It is astonishing how little you can live on when you divest yourself of all faucied needs! I had plenty of good wheaten bread to eat all the week, and the half of a herring for a relish (less will do if you can't afford half, for it is a splendid fish), and good coffee to drink; and I know how much—or rather how little—roast mutton you can get for twopence for your Sunday's dinner. Don't suppose I went there from choice; I went of strong necessity (and this was promotion, too); and I went with strong shrinking—with a sense of suffering great humiliation, regarding my being there as a thing to be carefully kept secret from all my old friends. In a word, I considered it only less degrading than sponging upon friends, or borrowing what I saw no chance of ever being able to pay."

Now the avocation of a London coal-merchant may seem one which is as little likely to afford any scope for originality as for romance. But some men are bound to be original. Set two men, the one uneducated and the other educated, to turn a grindstone or hoe potatoes, and the educated man will do something, even on that plane, to differentiate his labour from the merely mechanical toil of his companion. It is this inventive faculty which, when it results in its almost inevitable consequences, people call success. How true was Sydney Smith's remark, that genius generally meant hard work! Success is just another synonym. Into this apparently hopeless career the original mind did contrive to throw a dash of its own originality, and in doing so elaborated something like a prelude of what was to come in the future. Mr. Plimsoll invented a new system of loading, which he patented, and which brought him in a considerable royalty. He began to be a rich man, as well as a laborious and original one. He wanted even a larger sphere than the London coal-wharf for the development of his genius—for genius is shown in loading coals as much as in writing epics or inventing skating-rinks.

That larger sphere was Parliament. There are predestined members of Parliament, just as there are predestined poets; and, given the opportunity, the one as well as the other will make himself known. Mute, inglorious Miltons are, we fancy, not so plentiful as Gray's Elegy would lead us to suppose. If the genius of Milton be present, something will generally occur to call it forth; and so, too, if St. Stephen's be a man's destiny, he will probably get there, even though by what may seem a devious route. Mr. Plimsoll's first candidature for the borough of Derby, in 1865, was not successful; but these practical people have a way of trying again which is quite inexplicable to the inert, and which, in nine cases out of ten, makes trial issue in success. It was the case with Mr. Plimsoll. He tried again in 1868, and not only compassed his seat, but got in with a majority of 2,500. The working men did it for him. There is a freemasonry about these which makes them recognise a brother-worker when they see him. Mr. Plimsoll had exerted himself strenuously in healing breaches between employers and employed. He had seen both sides of the picture, and was able to appreciate the merits and discern the faults of each. This qualified him to be a mediator; and his mediation was so successful that the working men sent him into Parliament with that noble majority.

Before proceeding to view Mr. Plimsoll in his place in the House of Commons, however, we may be permitted to take just one passing glance at him in his domestic capacity. He married a lady belonging to the Wesleyans, the daughter of a coal-owner near Sheffield. A merely ambitious man would have sought a matrimonial alliance of quite a different character. Mr. Plimsoll sought, of course, a helpmeet for him and a Christian worker like himself. Suffice it to say, he succeeded in his quest. He is ably seconded by his wife in all those works of utility

and beneficence to which he devotes himself; and the religious side of his character is also well represented in her.

One other phase of his history, too, it would be unjust to pass over in silence, yet to this we fancy it would be his own wish that we should allude but briefly. We mean his passage-at-arms with the Duke of Buccleuch in reference to the proposed diversion of the Thames Embankment so as to preserve the duke's river-frontage. Mr. Plimsoll had to teach the lesson that even ducal privileges must give way before public convenience; and he taught the lesson so thoroughly, yet withal so courteously—for real courtesy is not inconsistent with firmness—as to earn the approval of the press and the country at large. It has been proposed to set up Mr. Plimsoll's statue at the East-end of London. Waiving the question as to whether anybody is much honoured by a London statue, certainly, if Mr. Plimsoll is to be "marbled" or "bronzed" at all, it should be on the Thames Embankment, the symmetry of which beautiful adjunct to the metropolis he did so much to secure.

We now come to that which Mr. Plimsoll has made the object of his life far beyond any personal aggrandisement or the mere acquisition of wealth. Money he has accumulated, no doubt; but he views it simply as a means to an end, that end being a purely unselfish one. His name will ever hereafter be identified with efforts to save the lives of our sailors at sea, as thoroughly as the name of Wilberforce is allied with the liberation of the slave, or that of Howard with the visitation of the prisoner. Mr. Plimsoll has called into his service the two most powerful agencies he could possibly command—the printing-press and the British Parliament. He has written a book, and Hansard is full of testimonies as to his ceaseless activity in the House of Commons on this topic. One could, without claiming to be a Lavater, infer that such would be the case from a mere study of the physiognomy in this instance. The face is that of a man who, having fixed on an object and made it his speciality, will pursue it unflinchingly to the end. This is beyond all others the characteristic mark of the Englishman—that firmness of purpose which Horace was thinking of when he penned the noble ode, beginning—

"Justum et tenacem propositi virum Non civium ardor prava jubentium Non vultus instantis tyranni Mente quatit solidâ."

More than this: though as a rule we elect to forego criticism, we could almost infer the style of book such a man would write if he took pen in hand. There is an original bluntness about the very title of Mr. Plimsoll's handsome quarto—"Our Seamen: An Appeal." More quaint and characteristic still is the dedication "To the Lady, gracious and kind, who, seeing a labourer working in the rain, sent him her rug to wrap about his shoulders." Then he plunges in medias res, thus:—"I have no idea of writing a book. I don't know how to do it, and fear I could not succeed if I tried; the idea, therefore, is very formidable to me." The result is, of course, the most original and readable of volumes as well as the most powerful of appeals. There is no symptom of book-making about it—no paste and scissors. It is with writing as with speaking: if a man has really something to say—something on which he feels strongly—he is sure to speak eloquently, however unlettered he may be. So with writing: if he writes with a purpose, he will be sure to interest his readers. That was what Wordsworth meant when he spoke of "vivid emotions" even of the humblest kind resulting in poetry. Enthusiasm is, beyond everything else, contagious; and Mr. Plimsoll's pages, like his words and actions, are full of enthusiasm. You are sure that you are reading the real words of a real

man, not mere sentences made up for the occasion. He does not at all suggest the idea that words were intended to conceal thoughts. His style is as blunt as that of one of the brave Jack Tars for whom he appeals. We may venture to quote from his book. He has had a slip stitched into the volume on which he says-addressing the members of the press:-"The more fully you may think fit to quote or transfer any portions of this Appeal (subject of course to your own judgment as to the interest of your readers and the interests of your journal), the better he will be pleased, as his object is more to get the facts before the public than to sell the book." We will fall in with Mr. Plimsoll's feeling on this matter, so far, at all events, as to let him state his purpose and make his appeal in his own words-we should mar the message if we paraphrased it. As to the purpose of his book, he says:-"There are many hundreds of lives lost annually by shipwreek, and as to the far greater part of them they are lost from causes which are easily preventible. I may say further that they would not be lost if the same care was taken of our sailors by the law as is taken of the rest of our fellow-subjects. A great number of ships are regularly sent to sea in such rotten and otherwise ill-provided state that they can only reach their destination through fine weather, and a large number are so overloaded that it is nearly impossible for them also to reach their destination if the voyage is at all rough. And I can show you that from these two causes alone (and they applied only to one portion of our merchant ships) rather more than a full half of our losses arise."

Such is Mr. Plimsell's grievance; certainly no selfish or sentimental one. Like every man with a grievance, he must button-hole you and impart it. That is the style of writing he adopts. He must, he says, imagine himself to be addressing an individual. By a process of abstraction and generalisation thoroughly his own, he personifies the British public, and begs them to listen to the causes of these catastrophes, the existence of which, alas! needs no demonstration. Such causes he finds to be multiform. He takes them in detail under the heads of undermanning, bad stowage, deek-loading, deficient engine-power, over-insurance, defective construction, improper lengthening, &c. Nor does he trust to word-pictures alone. He has illustrated his work profusely by means of reproduced photographs and heliotype reprints of authorities. Now it is an annotated cutting from a newspaper he represents in fac-simile; now a document from Lloyd's; by-and-by the portion of an outside plate removed from a ship taken into dry dock for repairs, and showing the action of the water on the bolt-holes. Never was a more wonderful production, certainly, when you consider that the author deprecates the idea of writing a book, and professes to be only button-holing you in a literary fashion. If half the three-volume novels published possessed a tithe of its interest, the circulating libraries would be besieged.

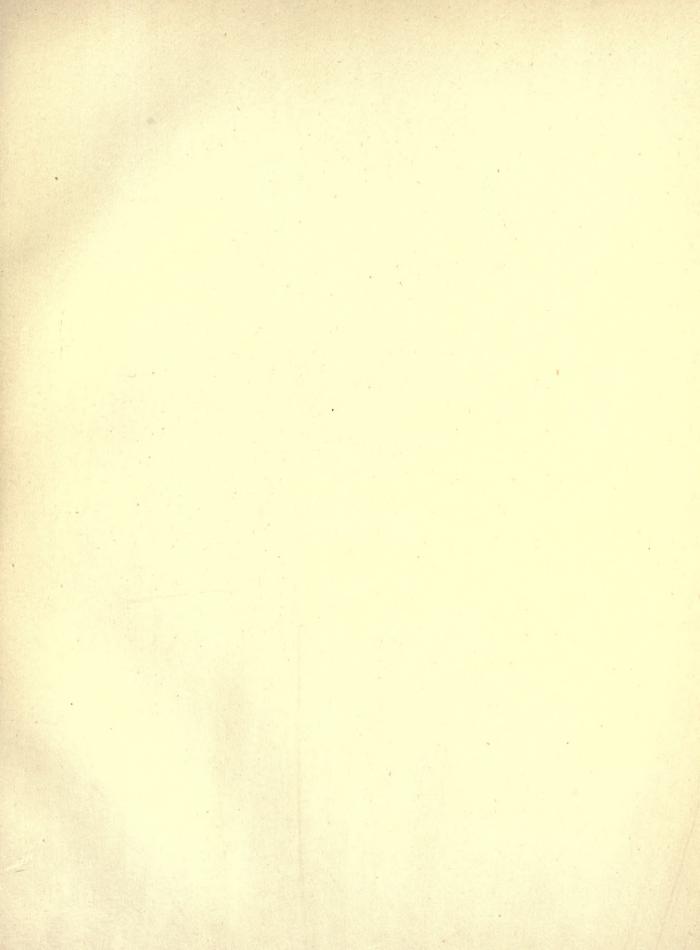
Then as to his appeal proper. We said he begged the public, or that portion of it which he button-holes, to read his book. He does not exactly do this. He adopts a less conventional style, and says:—"Now you who read these pages—somebody shall read them, if I have to give away the whole edition—will you help me to put these things right? If you will, whether man or woman, write me first a line to say so, and I will then say how you best can do so. There is little reason, I fear, for thinking my correspondence will be too heavy for me, for no one seems to care for the sailors; but write, and I shall be able, I daresay, to say what is best to be done in your case." Perhaps no more delicate instance of irony could be quoted than the reprints in those stern unflattering heliotypes of the paternal care exercised by the Metropolitan Board of Works over "Dangerous Structures," and the utter disregard of those

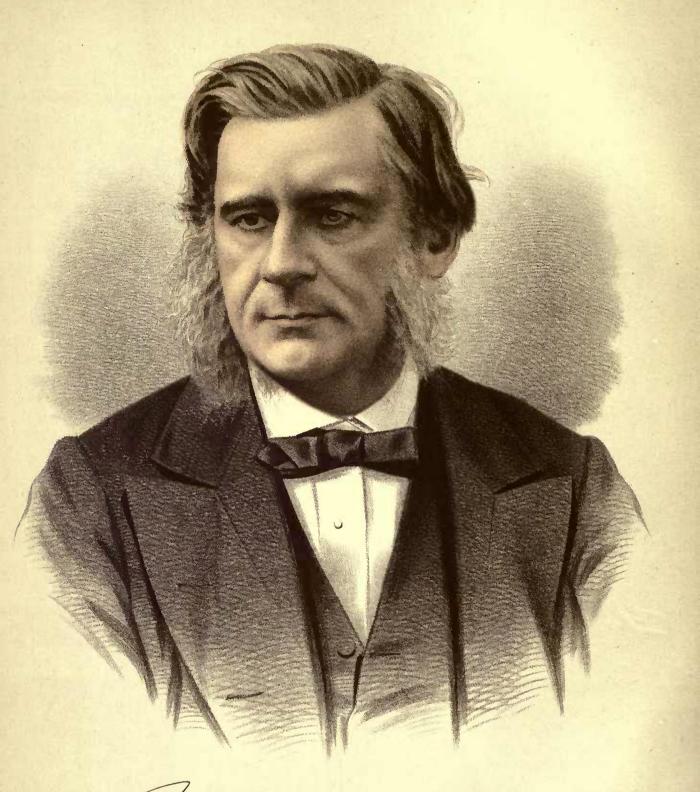
same dangerous structures when they take the form of slips, and are sent to sea. "The Metropolitan Board of Works," says the heliotype, "acting in the execution of the Metropolitan Building Act, 1869, having received information that the above-named structure is in a dangerous state, and having required a survey thereof to be made by a competent surveyor, and having had his opinion certified to them that the said structure is in a dangerous state, do, by this writing, give you notice and require you forthwith to remove the said building." But when the structure is a ship, hear what Mr. Plimsoll says :- "You may even buy an old ship-250 tons burden-by auction for £50, sold to be broken up because extremely old and rotten; she had had a narrow escape on her last voyage, and had suffered so severely that she was quite unfit to go to sea again, without more being spent in repairs upon her than she would be worth when done. Instead of breaking up this old ship, bought for 4s, per ton (the cost of a new ship being £10 to £14 a ton), as was expected, you may give her a coat of paint—she is too rotten for caulking—and, to the dismay of her late owners, you may prepare to send her to sea. You may then engage men in another port, and (they having signed articles without seeing the ship) you may send them to the port where the ship lies, in the custody of a runner. You may then, after re-christening the ship, which ought not to be allowed, if you have managed to insure her heavily, load her until her maindeck is within two feet of the water amidships, and send her to sea. Nobody can prevent you. Nav. more, if the men become restive you may arrest them, without a magistrate's warrant, and take them to prison, and the magistrates (who have no choice, they have not to make but administer the law) will commit them to prison for twelve weeks with hard labour; or, better still, you may send for a policeman on board to overawe the mutineers and induce them to do their duty! And then, if the ship is lost with all hands, you will gain a large sum of money, and you will be asked no questions, as no inquiry even will ever be held over the unfortunate men, unless (which has only happened once, I think) some member of the House asks for inquiry." It would probably be difficult to cite an instance of satire more pungent and biting than this! That is, in his own words, what Mr. Plimsoll is always doing in his place in the House of Commons, always "making inquiries," and proposing motions which have for their sole end and aim the welfare of the British sailor. The dripping water eventually wears away the stone; and we cannot allow ourselves to doubt that one of these days a paternal Government will get to see in sailors afloat quite as legitimate a sphere for its care as in landsmen on terra firma. It is really no more than this that Mr. Plimsoll is labouring to effect. He does not, at all events, as yet claim a larger amount of care for those who are placed by the accident of their calling in a peculiarly helpless position.

Were we engaged in writing the biography of a thin-skinned man, we might be tempted to pass over that extraordinary scene which took place in the House of Commons in July, 1875, and in which Mr. Plimsoll was the principal actor. It is too typical of the man, however, to omit; and we are quite sure he does not feel in the least ashamed of the cause which led to the incident, though he was the first to confess that his own zeal outran his discretion. Which of us has not been over and over again in our lives carried away by a similar impetuosity? But how many—or how few—of us can lay claim to so disinterested a cause for our ebullition? For many years, as we have said, Mr. Plimsoll had directed all his energies towards bringing about some legislative enactment that should diminish the dangers attaching to the mercantile marine of this country. He contrived at last to force the subject upon the attention of the Government, and at the commencement of the session the necessity of such legislation was

acknowledged in the Queen's speech. A measure called the Merchant Shipping Bill was introduced by the President of the Board of Trade. Mr. Plimsoll seemed to see some measure of success attending his efforts, and was prepared with more comprehensive plans for rendering the legislation efficient, when, late in the session, Mr. Disraeli suddenly announced that, in order to make room for other business, the Government had decided to abandon, for the time being, the Merchant Shipping Bill. Hereupon Mr. Plimsoll's indignation knew no bounds, and he urged the Prime Minister in the most solemn way not to send thousands of men to certain Such a course had been brought about, he urged, by the death by withdrawing the Bill. shipowning interest—the "ship-knackers," as he termed them, "I will unmask the villains," he said, "who have sent brave men to death!" The language was unparliamentary, of course, and Mr. Plimsoll apologised a week afterwards in the most handsome manner; while Mr. Disraeli expressed his regret that a reprimand of Mr. Plimsoll should have been even proposed. he known all the circumstances, he said, he should have looked at the matter as one of unrestrained sensibility, and believed that the honourable gentleman had allowed himself to become over-excited by his devotion to a cause which all persons must acknowledge to be a great and a A temporary measure was also passed embodying many of the principles of Mr. Plimsoll's Bill.

Mr. Plimsoll, in one word, lifts up his voice in season and out of season (at least so some people say) on this gigantic evil, for the existence of which we have the cold-blooded and unprejudiced evidence of figures. Being at Leeds in the year 1873 on a Sunday, he saw "Rotten Ships" announced as the subject of discourse in a chapel, so he turned in, and when the sermon was over gave them a few words on the subject. The congregation recognised in him one who could speak with authority on such a topic. They listened; they cheered. He claimed, he said, the same protection for their fellow-subjects at sea which they gave to factory hands and miners. The Leeds people understood that, and cheered again to the echo. He bade them lend a helping hand, and they would never forget it—the recollection would remain with them until their dying day. It would be a solace when flesh and heart failed because of physical prostration and weakness. It would be with them sustaining their sinking spirits even to the confines of an eternal world, and would precede them even into that world, and plead for them with Him who said, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me."





Minus A. Hueley.

PROFESSOR HUXLEY.

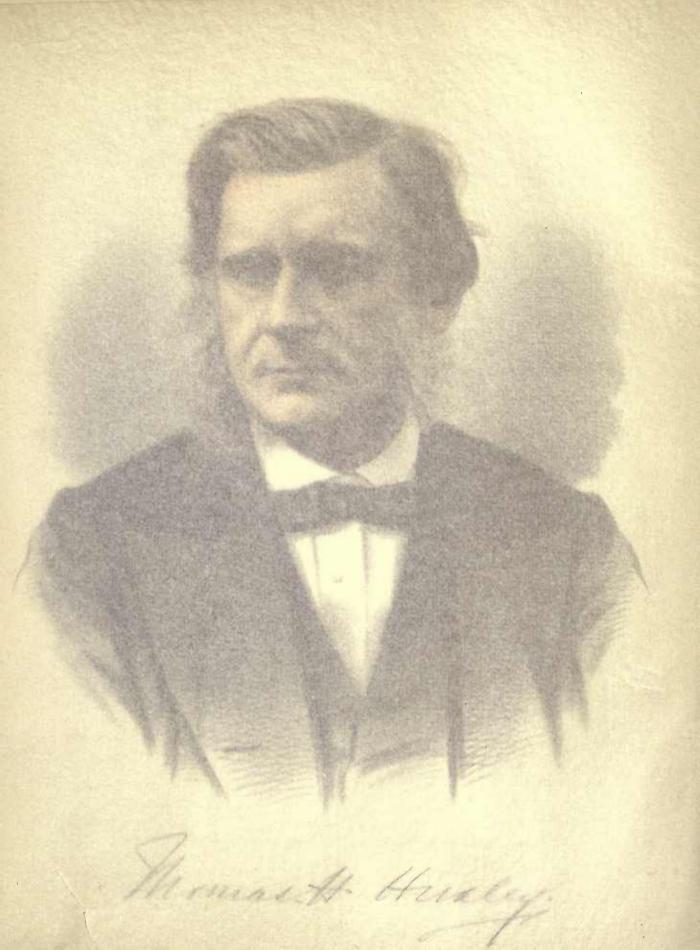
THERE is no disputing the fact that the present age is essentially a scientific one. Within this century, and even within the present decade, some of the most remarkable scientific discoveries on record have been made. And again, where, in the time of our forefathers, there existed one scientist, we have, on a very moderate computation, ten trace that number, the majority of them being seen codes at sits an amount of genius which will bear very favourable comparison with the present of the most eminent of our modern were at a second of the modern of the majority of the stands alone in his own provider that a second of the majority and the stands alone in his own provider that a second of the stands alone in his own provider that a second of the stands are against him with the slightest chance of ultimate success.

Thomas Henry Huxley was born on the 4th May, 1825, at Ealing, in the county of Middlesex, and received the principal part of his education at Ealing School, in which establishment his father was, at that period, one of the masters. For the rest he is chiefly indebted to the works of Carlyle and Mill, to the diligent study of German literature, and have not least, to the careful training and the excellent example of that distinguished the principal and anatomist, Mr. Wharton Jones.

"Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent the tree 's inclined."

So writes have in his "Moral Essays;" and it is scarcely saying too much when we suggest that had not the youth Huxley fallen in with the grand works of Carlyle and Mill, and had he not had the acceptage of the unrivalled skill in tuition on physiological subjects of such an eminent teacher as "harton Jones, the world would, in all probability, have been degrived of the services of one of the brightest minds. Fortunately, however, enquirements were propriated the twig was favourable best, and now we see the well-trained tree in the full glory of its mature growth.

Provented by adverse circumstances from decetions has emergine to the profession of his shoice, which was that of an engineer, Mr. Harrier which still quite a youth, commenced the study of medicine, under the tutelage of his because it was a physician of some standard. Between the years 1842 and 1845, he was engaged to resource through his currenters as student of medicine, attending several coarses of latters at Sydenham College, has indebted for the required of his instruction to the charing Cross Hospital Medical Source He was participated attracted by the admirable tenebing of the Lecturer on Physician attracted by the admirable tenebing of the Lecturer on Physician and the latter instruction. Mr. Wharton Jones, which caused him to devote instruction and the siderable and he would be study of Physiology and Histology. The result of the manufacture of the study of Physiology and Histology.



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So writes Pope, in his "Moral Essays;" and it is scarcely saying too much when we suggest that had not the youth Huxley fallen in with the grand works of Carlyle and Mill, and had he not had the advantage of the unrivalled skill in tuition on physiological subjects of such an eminent teacher as Wharton Jones, the world would, in all probability, have been deprived of the services of one of its brightest minds. Fortunately, however, circumstances were propitious: the twig was favourably bent, and now we see the well-trained tree in the full glory of its mature growth.

Prevented by adverse circumstances from devoting his energies to the profession of his choice, which was that of an engineer, Mr. Huxley, whilst still quite a youth, commenced the study of medicine, under the tutelage of his brother-in-law, a physician of some standing. Between the years 1842 and 1845, he was engaged in passing through his curriculum as a student of medicine, attending several courses of lectures at Sydenham College, but being indebted for the remainder of his instruction to the Charing Cross Hospital Medical School. He was particularly attracted by the admirable teaching of the Lecturer on Physiology at the latter institution, Mr. Wharton Jones, which caused him to devote himself with considerable zeal to the study of Physiology and Histology. The result of this application

was that he published, in 1845, his first paper, containing an account of the discovery of a new structure in the sheath of the human hair. This was altogether an original investigation, and the sheath tissue which formed the subject of his paper continues to bear the name of "Huxley's layer," no better or more appropriate title having yet been found for it. Mr. Huxley completed his medical studies, and passed the first examination for the degree of Bachelor of Medicine at the University of London, taking high honours in Physiology, in the same year. The College of Surgeons, however, requires its members to be at least twenty-one years of age, and he was, therefore, still too young to become a qualified practitioner in the early part of 1846. He lamented his enforced inaction to a fellow student-Dr. (now Sir) Joseph Fayrer, afterwards Professor of Surgery at the Calcutta Medical College, and author of that grand work, the "Thanatophidia of India"—when the latter suggested an application to the late Sir William Burnett for an appointment in the Royal Navy. The application was duly made; and, after passing the requisite examinations, Mr. Huxley found himself, in March, 1846, entered on the books of H.M.S. Victory for hospital service at Haslar Naval Hospital. It so happened that Sir John Richardson, the eminent Arctie voyager and naturalist, was at that time medical inspector at Haslar, and the newly-appointed assistant-surgeon had, consequently, the good fortune to fall under his orders. Sir John was a man who did not say very much, but who observed a good deal, always taking considerable interest in the welfare and progress of his subordinates. He endeavoured, unknown to Mr. Huxley, to obtain for him a permanent appointment to the museum of the hospital. He failed, however, in that; and then introduced him to the late Captain Owen Stanley, who, on commissioning H.M.S. Rattlesnake shortly afterwards for a surveying and exploring cruise to the South Seas, made application to Sir John Richardson to find him an assistant-surgeon competent to make use of the scientific opportunities which the voyage in question would afford. The appointment was offered to, and gladly accepted by, Mr. Huxley, and he sailed with the expedition in the winter of 1846. The fortunate chance which gave him the opportunity of joining this expedition was the first step on the ladder to fame, and from the date when he first set foot on the deck of the Rattlesnake he continued to advance, per mare per terras, to the great position to which he ultimately attained.

The principal object of the cruise was to survey the so-called "inner passage" between the Great Barrier Reef and the east coast of Australia; but that end achieved, Captain Stanley was left at liberty to explore the adjacent coasts of New Guinea and the Louisiade Archipelago to any extent he might deem advisable. The Rattlesnake visited Madeira, Rio, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, and Tasmania, on her way to Sydney. Making the latter place her headquarters for about three months in each year, the Rattlesnake spent most of the rest of three successive years among the reefs and islands off the eastern and northern coasts of Australia. The mishaps were remarkably few, until 1850, when Captain Stanley, whose health had suffered severely by the eruise of the preceding season in New Guinea, died suddenly. event Professor Huxley remarks, that "nothing could have been more unfortunate for the scientific interests of the expedition, or for the personal welfare of the officers who had performed its duties and shared its fatigues"—a fitting tribute to the memory of an accomplished and zealous officer. Misfortunes seldom come singly; and soon afterwards a strange epidemic, said to have originated by a scratch on the hand of one of the quartermasters by a beef-bone, spread through the ship, and cost one life and prolonged suffering to many. The death of the captain put an end to the cruise, and the Rattlesnake returned home by way of New Zealand, the Falkland, and the Western Islands, reaching England, after just four years' absence, in the winter of 1850. Whatever may have been the value, in other respects, of the voyage of the Rattlesnake (an excellent account of which has been published by the naturalist of the ship, Mr. John MaeGillivray, with illustrations from drawings made by Mr. Huxley), it is very certain that it was of great service to her assistant-surgeon as a training school, not only in science, but in practical life.

In 1847, Mr. Huxley, from on board ship, sent to the Linnean Society, of which the Bishop of Norwieh, the father of Captain Stanley, was then the president, a memoir on the Physalia; in 1848 another on the structure of the allied Diphyda; and in 1849 a third on the anatomy and affinities of the Medusa; the latter, in which the results of the previous inquiries were summed up and generalised, being transmitted to the Royal Society. Mr. Huxley knew nothing of the fate of these essays—which had cost him a vast amount of time and labour—until his arrival in England. He had, however, on his return in 1850, the satisfaction of learning that the Royal Society had printed his last memoir: which indeed procured for him, two years later, the further encouragement of the award of a Royal Medal—an event of vast practical value to a young professional man.

It is well worthy of note, that Mr. Huxley's first paper was read to the Royal Society when he was only in his twenty-third year. The work thus published by this Society was an expansion of only a very small part of the mass of notes and drawings collected during the four years' eruise; and as the Lords of the Admiralty had thought fit to prefix to the Manual of Scientific Inquiry, published under their auspices, a minute stating their opinion that "it would be to the honour and advantage of the Navy, and conduce to the general interest of science, if new facilities and encouragement were given to the collection of information upon scientific subjects by the officers of H.M. Navy when upon foreign service . . . And it will be for their lordships to consider whether some pecuniary reward or promotion may not be given to those who succeed in producing eminently useful results." Mr. Huxley's friends and advisers were scarcely unreasonable in imagining that their lordships would afford such encouragement by contributing towards the publication of his researches. The history of the prolonged negotiations which took place; how the Government Grant Committee very properly declined to expend the funds at their disposal upon work which the Admiralty stood pledged to aid: how, on the other hand, the Admiralty, steadily ignoring its minute, yet gave the troublesome assistant-surgeon full pay for three years to enable him to do that which they refused him the means of doing, may be found in the preface to the "Oceanic Hydrozoa," which book ultimately made its appearance in 1859. To the credit of the Admiralty, be it said, that these matters are more liberally managed now.

In 1851, Mr. Huxley submitted to the Royal Society, Memoirs on Salpa and Pyrosoma, and on Appendicularia and Doliolum, and in this and the following year, published other papers of minor importance. He was elected a member of the Royal Society in June, 1851, being then twenty-six years old, an unusually early age for such a distinguished honour to be conferred. He delivered his maiden lecture at the Royal Institution, in April, 1852. In the same year, in conjunction with Mr. Busk, the Professor undertook the translation of Kölliker's "Human Histology" for the Sydenham Society.

In 1854, Professor Huxley succeeded to the Chair of Natural History (including Comparative Anatomy and Palæontology), at the Royal School of Mines in Jermyn Street, vacated by the removal of Professor Edward Forbes to Edinburgh. In the course of the year, he

delivered a lecture at the Royal Institution on the "Hypothesis of Progressive Development in Time," in which he denied that the facts of Palæontology, as known at that time, afforded any direct support to that hypothesis, and furthermore impugned the common assumption that reasoning from final causes is an important part of the method of interpretation of the palæontologist. Professor Huxley holds exceedingly high rank as a palæontologist. In a lecture "On the Educational Value of Natural History," delivered at St. Martin's Hall in 1854, the following characteristic passage occurs:-"There is vet another way in which natural history may, I am convinced, take a profound hold upon practical life, and that is by its influence over the finer feelings, as the greatest of all sources of that pleasure which is derived from beauty. I do not pretend that natural history knowledge, as such, can increase our sense of the beautiful in natural objects. . . . But to a person uninstructed in natural history, his country or seaside stroll is a walk through a gallery filled with wonderful works of art, nine-tenths of which have their faces turned to the wall. Teach him something of natural history, and you place in his hands a catalogue of those which are worth turning round. Surely our innocent pleasures are not so abundant in this life that we can afford to despise them, or any source of them." There is no gainsaving the simple truth of this observation.

Professor Huxley was appointed Fullerian Professor of Physiology to the Royal Institution in 1855, and delivered the usual course of lectures in that capacity in that and the three following years. In the same year he also became Examiner in Physiology and Comparative Anatomy to the University of London—a post he continued to hold up to 1862.

In 1857 and 1858 he published sundry contributions to Comparative Anatomy and Palæontology. One of the most important of these is that on the Agamic Reproduction and Morphology of Aphis, in which an exact analysis of the strange phenomena observed by Bonnet in the Aphides is given, and an attempt is made to demonstrate the typical construction of the head and body of articulate animals. Being appointed Croonian Lecturer to the Royal Society for 1858, the Professor took for his subject the theory of the Vertebrate Skull, and endeavoured to demonstrate that the skull is not a modified series of Vertebrae, but that it is constructed on a plan of its own: he also called special attention to the extreme importance of the study of development in relation to this question. About this time he contributed several papers and essays to the Geological, Linnean, and Microscopical Societies, and also a Report on the Deep Sea Soundings—collected by Captain Dayman, R.N., during the survey preliminary to the laying down of the Atlantic cable—to the Admiralty.

Professor Huxley was appointed one of the Secretaries to the Geological Society in 1859, which position he held until 1862, when he was obliged to resign the post on account of the pressure of other duties. He took a large amount of interest in Mr. Darwin's great work on the "Origin of Species," which appeared in this year, and exerted himself on all occasions to obtain a fair hearing for the views therein contained.

During 1860 and 1861, Professor Huxley published several papers on paleontological and anatomical subjects, the most important of which is the Preliminary Essay to Decade X. of the publication of the Geological Survey, containing a new arrangement and diagnosis of the suborders of fossil Ganoid fishes.

In 1862, in the absence of the president, Professor Huxley was called upon to deliver the annual address to the Geological Society, on which occasion he availed himself of the opportunity to expand and enforce the views he had put forward in 1855. Soon after this he was chosen a member of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the operation of the Acts

relating to trawling on the West Coast of Scotland; and in subsequent years he has been selected to act in a similar capacity on the Sea Fisheries Commission (two years). Aid to Science Commission (two years), Contagious Diseases Commission, Scottish Universities Commission, and the Vivisection Commission in 1876. The same year (1862) he was appointed President of Section D at the meeting of the British Association at Cambridge, when he suggested, in his address, that no encouragement to the study of physical science at the Universities would be likely to have any practical effect so long as the proportion of the Fellowships to be obtained by proficiency in such sciences remained as small as at that time. Professor Huxley was also at this date made a member of the Royal College of Surgeons of England, and shortly afterwards received the appointment of Hunterian Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology to that body. One well entitled to give an opinion, speaking of Professor Huxley's lectures from the Hunterian Chair, remarks:-" Never before in England have all the leading and most significant facts of animal structure been so exhibited: never have all the most complex and intricate questions of zoology been treated with such clearness and completeness—such boldness, and yet with such caution—such patient original investigation, and yet with so much serupulous justice to the labours of others. It is impossible to speak too highly of the admirable lucidity with which Professor Huxley enunciates facts, and the conclusions he deduces from them, or, on the other hand, of the exemplary caution with which facts are verified and weighed, and a prudent suspension of judgment recommended where many would be tempted to pronounce a definite decision. When, however, the facts seem to him to warrant an absolute judgment, or to point to a strong probability, the announcement is made accordingly, with a conscientious boldness deserving of all praise."

In 1863, Professor Huxley produced a somewhat remarkable book-"Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature." The three essays of which this work is composed sum up the facts which have been of late years the subject of so much lively dispute, relative to the anatomical resemblance between man and the anthropoid apes. The third essay is devoted to a discussion on certain human skulls, now become celebrated in science—the one from the caves of Engis, in the valley of the Meuse, and the other from the Neanderthal, near Düsseldorf. The question of the possible derivation of man, by a slow process of modification and improvement, from a race of apes, has excited more sensation than that of the prolonged duration of man upon the earth. Such views have, indeed, long ago been suggested, but it is only during the last twenty years or so that they have been widely eanyassed in the scientific world, where great differences of opinion are known to exist. In noticing Mr. Darwin's views, the Professor says:-"Mr. Darwin's hypothesis is not, so far as I am aware, inconsistent with any known biological faet; on the contrary, if admitted, the faets of Development, of Comparative Anatomy, of Geographical Distribution, and of Palæontology, become connected together, and exhibit a meaning such as they never possessed before; and I, for one, am fully convinced, that if not precisely true, that hypothesis is as near to the truth, as, for example, the Copernican hypothesis was to the true theory of the planetary motions. But for all this, our acceptance of the Darwinian hypothesis must be provisional so long as one link in the chain of evidence is wanting; and so long as all the animals and plants certainly produced by selective breeding from a common stock are fertile and their progeny are fertile, that link will be wanting. For so long selective breeding will not be proved to be competent to do all that is required of it to produce natural species." These views are, of course, vigorously opposed by eminent men of an opposite school, and we only record them without committing ourselves to an expression of approval.

Professor Huxley was elected President of the Geological Society in 1868. In his second anniversary address he gave a summary of the Palæontological Evidence in favour of Evolution which had come to light since 1862.

The Professor has written the following works, several of which are more fully referred to in other parts of this sketch. "Oceanic Hydrozoa" (1859); "Evidence as to Man's Place in Nature" (1863); "Lectures on Comparative Anatomy" (1864); "Lessons in Elementary Physiology" (1866); "An Introduction to the Classification of Animals" (1869); "Lay Sermons, Addresses, and Reviews" (1870); "Manual of the Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals" (1871); "Critiques and Addresses" (1873); and "Elementary Biology" (1875). Besides these volumes, he is also the author of numerous papers published in the Transactions and Journals of the Royal, the Linnean, the Geological, the Zoological, and other scientific Societics, and in the Memoirs of the Geological Survey of Great Britain.

"Lay Sermons, Addresses, and Reviews," published in 1870, has acquired a large amount of notoriety. The volume consists of lectures delivered in London and the provinces, some of which—especially the essay "On the Physical Basis of Life"—brought down upon the lecturer a storm of fierce criticism. In a prefatory letter to this book (addressed to his friend, Professor Tyndall), the author writes:—"The result of my well-meant efforts I find to be, that I am generally credited with having invented 'protoplasm' in the interests of 'Materialism.' My unlucky 'Lay Sermon' has been attacked by microscopists ignorant alike of Biology and Philosophy; by philosophers not very learned either in Biology or Microscopy; by elergymen of several denominations; and by some few writers who have taken the trouble to understand the subject."

As a clear and concise lecturer Professor Huxley has won a large share of laurels. He possesses the happy faculty of reducing the most abstruse subjects into every-day language. It matters not whether he be discoursing upon "a piece of chalk" to the audience assembled on the Workmen's Night at the yearly gathering of the British Association, or whether he be explaining at the Royal School of Mines the profound mysteries of "reflex action of the nerves" to an audience of artizans; he never fails to prove that it is quite unnecessary to employ hard words in order to make hard subjects clear, and that a perfectly correct idea of the wonders of natural phenomena may be conveyed without enveloping the subject in a cloak of scientific and, consequently, harsh terminology. Both at the Royal Institution and at Jermyn Street his lectures never fail to attract large audiences. He possesses a pleasant style of lecturing, always amusing, and frequently humorous, but never in the least degree exceeding the bounds of good taste. So much are his lectures in favour with working men, that on many occasions hundreds of applicants for sixpenny tickets have been sent empty away, for want of space in the theatre. Professor Huxley's pursuits have rarely led him in the direction of experimental physiology, and he has had little or nothing to do with vivisection properly so called. But he has considered it his duty to defend the practice of vivisection for scientific purposes, while desiring that every precaution should be taken to check the possible abuse of that practice.

Professor Huxley was President of the British Association in 1870, the meeting of which was held at Liverpool. His address differed in many respects from the style of those given by many of his predecessors. It had been too much the character of previous addresses that their authors had attempted a thing in itself impossible, viz., the laying before the meeting a complete resumé of the science of the previous year. Professor Huxley, on the other hand,

confined himself almost entirely to those branches of physical science with which he is best acquainted, and on which, therefore, he was entitled to speak as a master. His subject was the question of what is commonly called spontaneous generation, the occurrence of which he combated.

Elected to a seat—for Marylebone—at the London School Board, in 1870, Professor Huxley took a very active part in the deliberations of that body, rendering himself particularly conspicuous by his opposition to denominational teaching, and by his powerful denunciation, in 1871, of the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. He did not, however, retain his position for more than a year, as his health gave way, and he was compelled to visit Egypt for change of air. Before quitting England he resigned his seat at the Board. In his "Critiques and Addresses" Professor Huxley has a good deal to say on the subject of School Boards, and criticises the attacks of his opponents in a very masterly manner.

He was made LL.D. of Edinburgh in 1870, and elected Lord Rector of Aberdeen University for three years on December 14th, 1872, being installed in that office on the 27th of February, 1874. He has also been elected a member of the principal foreign scientific societies, and in 1876 received the Wollaston medal of the Geological Society.

In 1870, the contributions to lectureship of Professor Huxley included his "Instruction in Science and Art for Women," in twelve lectures on Physiography, delivered at South Kensington. The syllabus of each of these lectures is, to use a popular comparison, as entertaining as a fairy tale. In the introductory statement, the Professor—speaking of the River Thames—tells us that as that river carries down to the sea not less than 14,000,000 cubic feet of solid material, either dissolved or as mud, every year, at the present rate of denudation the whole basin would be washed down to the sea level in 1,000,000 years, and the surface of Britain would everywhere be washed down to a plain, level with the sea, in less than 5,000,000 years!

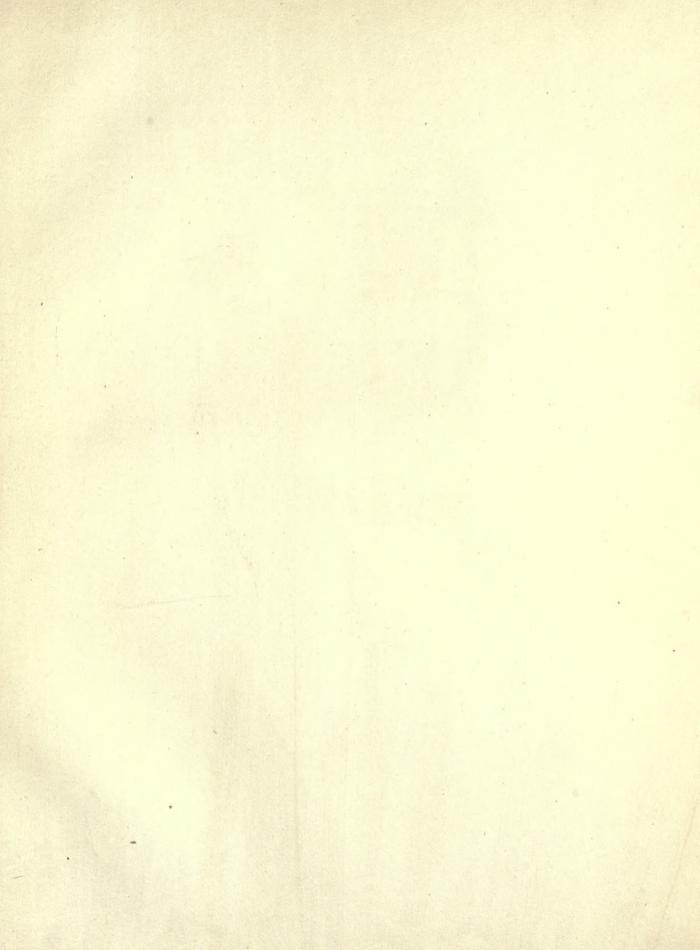
The addresses of Professor Huxley have not been entirely confined to merely scientific subjects. At the distribution of prizes to the successful students in the Oxford Local Examination at Manchester, in November, 1871, the Professor, in the course of a very interesting address, adverted to the great changes which have taken place in our own day in the Universities, and the further reforms which are shadowed forth. He pointed out, in justice to the University of Oxford, that the reforms which have been effected therein have not been altogether due to external pressure. He further remarked that nowhere in the world was there a better school, so far as it went, for the teaching of all the great branches of physical science, than was at that time to be found within the University in question.

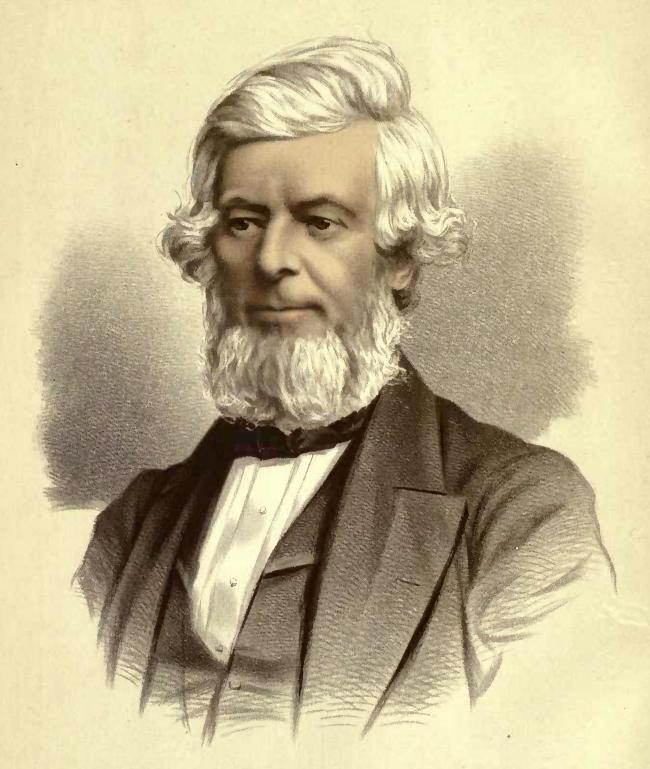
In 1872, the fine Renaissance building at South Kensington was handed over to the body of professors who, in connection with the Royal School of Mines, the Royal College of Chemistry, and the Examinations of teachers and students under the Science and Art Department, were already performing the functions of a Government College of Science. This gave to Professor Huxley, for the first time, a series of laboratories in which the structure and functions of living things could be taught and studied in the way which he had always desired they should be taught and studied, namely, by practical investigation of physical specimens of both plants and animals. He had previously been hampered in his efforts by want of proper accommodation, and had had to content himself with the delivery of a course of lectures, unaccompanied by any systematic laboratory work. Professor Huxley's first care, on taking possession of the laboratories, was to organise a course of laboratory work, which he did in conjunction with some younger biologists, at the first, for the benefit of a class of science teachers, who were assembled

at Kensington in the summer of 1871, and again in that of 1872, by the liberal action of the Science and Art Department. The Professor was elected to the Secretaryship of the Royal Society in 1873.

On the 29th of January, 1876, the Professor delivered a very interesting lecture at the Royal Institution, on the subject of the Challenger Expedition. After referring to Ehrenberg's discovery that organisms similar to those whose skeletons sometimes constitute the whole mass of cretaeeous and tertiary rocks are still living, he adverted to Ross and Hooker's observations at the distant points of the Antarctic Zone in 1839, showing the evidence of a zone of silicious deposit, similar to that at the North Pole. These results, he pointed out, had been fully confirmed by the Challenger. In concluding his remarks, the Professor commented on the results obtained by the Challenger Expedition as confirmatory of the doctrine of uniformitarianism in relation to the formation of our globe, as advocated by Sir Charles Lyell. Being himself so eminent an authority on matters of this kind, his words were naturally listened to with the greatest attention. It may here be remarked, en passant, that during Professor Wyville Thomson's absence with the Challenger Expedition, Professor Huxley acted as his substitute as Professor of Natural History at Edinburgh University in the summer sessions of 1875 and 1876.

In the foregoing biographical sketch, we have endeavoured to chronicle the principal incidents in the eventful life of Professor Huxley, and to draw attention to the most conspicuous of his many works and distinguished acquirements. As we have already stated, Professor Huxley is fairly entitled to be mentioned as one of the foremost philosophers of the day; and it would be impossible for us, by any words of ours, to add to that large quota of praise and appreciation which has been unanimously accorded to him by the whole of the learned and scientific societies of Great Britain.



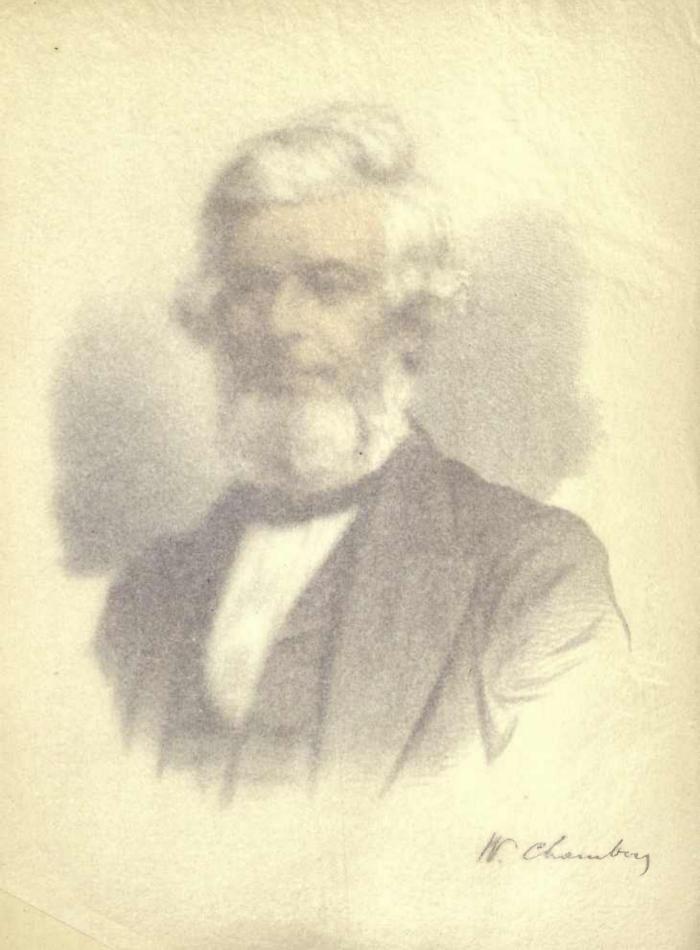


W. Chambery

WILLIAM CHAMBERS.

A CCORDING to the conventional land, a successful self-made man always begins life in the great city where he would be followed with half-a-mount in his pocket. The subject of this sketch, however, the second self-made received of self-help, is not conventional in any respect whatever. He was to the following the following in the capital of his within land but so the from entering it with half-a-crown, his pockets were absolutely enter when he made his first appearance within its gates. Since then he has bind to toil through a great variety of fortune, and, like one who buildeth by the wayside, he has had many judges. The story of a man who began life so poorly, who toiled through it so bravely to fame and honour, must necessarily have in it much human interest; indeed, as we shall see in the case before us, it has in it not a little pathos and romance.

William and Robert Chambers, the pioneers of cheap, wholesome, popular literature, were born in the beginning of the century-William in April, 1800, and Robert in July, 1802. Their birthplace was Peebles, a quaint old town on the banks of the Tweed. This is in itself a rather curious circumstance. Peebles is the last place on earth which might be expected to produce an ardent advocate and a typical specimen of self-improvement. It is, or till comparatively recently was, the prevailing belief in the minds of the inhabitants of this town that the suggestion of becoment in their case was as superfluous as the mythical proposal to supply Newcastle with was from foreign parts. Indeed, Peebles had acquired a traditional notoriety all over Scotland for he same shrewdness and dry mother-wit of its worthy burghers. The local regule of the borough had war marvellously self-sufficient, and scarcely any new houses were built in it, inasmuch as it was the be already, in the beginning of this century, a perfectly finished town. A suggested as told about one of its leading citizens who was famed for having ventured to visit Pare. on his return, he was asked what he thought of that we've brilliant of capitals. he replied, a things considered, is dootless a maist wonder's place; but still, gie me Peebles for some The younger Chambers, in a charming description of his birthplace, save in was at the least this century in exactly the same condition that it had been a hundred years before. The was a quiet, obscure little town in which Wilham Chambers was born. He came of "guid the Scots say-meaning that we persons exclusively romanically for prominence in the state of the solid, but solid, substantial whose solveney was now a second of doubt among st was been been the state of the state of the word worden manufactures and who were in rather exactly the decimelances, though "frence in a very plan state" the factor heat been sent in the comment of the first the decision of entire manufacturing about the time when that industries are increasing on that Boundard. That he convent it we in Victors on a telerably large scale is the beauty received by the first work has a consistency beauty beauty beauty



WILLIAM CHAMBERS.

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William and Robert Chambers, the pioneers of cheap, wholesome, popular literature, were born in the beginning of the century—William in April, 1800, and Robert in July, 1802. Their birthplace was Peebles, a quaint old town on the banks of the Tweed. This is in itself a rather curious circumstance. Peebles is the last place on earth which might be expected to produce an ardent advocate and a typical specimen of self-improvement. It is, or till comparatively recently it was, the prevailing belief in the minds of the inhabitants of this town that the suggestion of improvement in their case was as superfluous as the mythical proposal to supply Newcastle with coals from foreign parts. Indeed, Peebles had acquired a traditional notoriety all over Scotland for he native shrewdness and dry mother-wit of its worthy burghers. The local repute of the borough had made it marvellously self-sufficient, and scarcely any new houses were built in it, inasmuch as it was thought to be already, in the beginning of this century, a perfectly finished town. A suggestive story is told about one of its leading citizens who was famed for having ventured to visit Paris. When, on his return, he was asked what he thought of that most brilliant of capitals, he replied, "Payris, a' things considered, is dootless a maist wonderfu' place; but still, gie me Peebles for pleesure." The younger Chambers, in a charming description of his birthplace, says it was at the beginning of this century in exactly the same condition that it had been a hundred years before. Such was the quiet, obscure little town in which William Chambers was born. He came of "guid folk," as the Scots say-meaning thereby not persons exclusively remarkable for prominence in the religious world, but solid, substantial citizens, whose solvency was never a matter of doubt amongst those who dealt with them. His ancestors were woollen manufacturers, men who were in rather comfortable circumstances, though "living in a very plain style." His father had been sent in his youth to Glasgow, to learn the business of cotton manufacturing, about the time when that industry was first introduced into Scotland. That he carried it on in Peebles on a tolerably large scale is clearly proved by the fact that he used to sometimes have a hundred looms

running in his employment. Robert Chambers describes this early home as "a neat, small mansion, fronting to the Eddleston Water; a tastefully-furnished sitting-room, containing a concealed bed, one or two other little rooms, and a kitchen, a ground floor full of looms, and a garret full of webs and weft." It was a happy home at this time. The res angusta domi had not as yet darkened the lives of those it sheltered. Both William and Robert Chambers, however, in their writings, linger most lovingly on the memory of their mother, a delicate, lady-like woman, full of natural refinement and high purposes, whose courage and devotion in the dark hour of pecuniary distress alone enabled her boys to attain that success which ultimately brought them both fame and fortune. Most clever men have had for their mothers women of marked ability and steadfast force of character. It was so in the case of William Chambers, who, like his brother, all through life retained for his mother an almost passionate veneration. He says of her that, "both in appearance and manners, she was by nature a lady, and circumstances made her a heroine."

William Chambers' father was essentially a luckless person. He was a handsome, generoushearted, kindly man whose very expansiveness of geniality made him "his own worst enemy." He was not possessed of good business capacity, and as his son said of him once, when referring to his mode of dealing with the class of workmen whom he sometimes employed, he was in his commercial dealings too soft to make much headway in the world. Yet he was a man of high tastes, and considerable culture, and lofty ambition. He was never weary of impressing on his boys that no amount of money should ever induce them to continue in the service of others, and that they were always to strive to be their own masters, no matter how poor might be their lot. He was a man with strong literary, scientific, and even artistic sympathies. With Mungo Park, afterwards the great African traveller, he was wont to study astronomy; and he had purchased a costly copy of the Encyclopædia Britannica, which, after the first flush of interest in it had cooled, was stowed away in a big chest in the garret, "beside the cotton wefts and the meal ark." This great work was the means of giving both William and Robert Chambers the larger part of the education they possessed when they started life; for their schooling—such as is usually understood by the term-was of the most meagre description. The first seminary at which William Chambers tasted of the Pierian spring was kept by an old widow called Cranston, who, according to her own account, was qualified to carry her pupils as far as reading the Bible; but to this proficiency there was the reasonable exception of leaving out difficult words, such as Maher-shalal-hash-baz. These she told the children might be made "a passover," and, accordingly, it was the rule of the establishment to let them alone. From this school William went to one kept by a rather festive deminie called Gray, where, for two shillings a quarter, he was taught the three "R's." The discipline kept up in this institution was, to say the least of it, lax. In the charming memoir of his brother Robert, William Chambers tells us that when the teacher was temporarily absent there took place a battle of the books, the one side of the school against the other, in which the missiles used (dog-eared Bibles without the boards) flew about like leaves before the wind. He was then sent to the grammar-school, kept by an able but savage teacher called Sloan, where, for five shillings a quarter, he had Latin and some of the higher branches of education flogged into him. Yet, after all, at none of these schools was he taught geography, William Chambers, in his autobiographical recollections, has left history, or physical science. it on record that his entire education-which ended when he was thirteen-cost, books included, only £6. A bookseller in Peebles, who kept a little circulating library, supplied the brothers Chambers with much reading of a desultory nature; and then there was the Encyclopædia

Britannica in the garret, which the two boys waded through, reading together in childish partnership from the same volume at the same time, "one having the privilege of turning over the leaves."

The father of William Chambers, from his easy-going trust in human nature, gradually drifted into bankruptey, and the family quitted Peebles to push their fortunes in Edinburgh. They entered the Scottish capital, writes William Chambers, "my mother with but a few shillings in her pocket, whilst there was not a halfpenny in mine," Here they struggled on in a shifty, poverty-stricken way for some time, the father getting a scanty living by doing some commission business for Glasgow manufacturers, and the mother wistfully striving to find some employment for her eldest boy. His taste lay in books, but the trade of selling them was a poor one, so it was first resolved to bind him as an apprentice to a greer in Tolbooth Wynd. Leith. He was taken to the shop of this tradesman, and examined as to his qualifications. It was at once seen he was not strong enough for the work, which was to draw a truck loaded with several hundredweight of goods for delivery to customers, some of them many miles distant. He says himself, in recording his lucky escape from becoming a grocer's boy, "it was in reality a horse that might have been advertised for, or, at least, an able-bodied porter" -not a young apprentice. After this failure to get employment, it was with a heavy heart he began to look out for something else to do. Through accidentally seeing in the window of Mr. John Sutherland, bookseller, Calton Street, Edinburgh, an announcement intimating that an apprentice was "wanted," William Chambers went into the service of this worthy man, and on the 8th of May, 1814, he was launched into the world of business with four shillings a week for his wages. In the August of the following year, the family went to Joppa Pans, a sooty, mal-odorous place, devoted to salt-making, where his father became manager of a salt manufactory. Upon his wretched pittance from Sutherland, William Chambers determined to live, abhorring the very idea of being a burden on his poor delicate, struggling mother, for whom his love amounted to something like a religious fanaticism. He got a humble lodging in the top of a house in Boak's Land, West Port, Edinburgh, for 1s. 6d. a week. It was only a little bed-closet, and he had to share it with a poor dirinity student from the Tweeddale Hills. After paying his rent and board, the youthful economist, out of his weekly four shillings, had a balance of ninepence for "miscellaneous demands." He achieved the feat of living on 1s. 9d. a week by abstaining from all articles of luxury, and by taking his meals in company with the other inmates of the house. His daily expenditure amounted to threepence-halfpenny. Breakfast and supper cost him each a penny, and they consisted of a mess of oatmeal porridge and buttermilk. His dinner was more expensive. It consisted of broth and bread, and it cost three-halfpenee.

As will be seen, indulgence in tea, coffee, or sugar, was incompatible with this scheme of frugality, and even new fresh milk came under the category of a forbidden luxury. The youthful bibliopole had to work hard for his master, who, in addition to his business as a book-seller, kept a circulating library, and acted as an agent for the State Lottery, the delivery of circulars in connection with which gave William Chambers many a long and weary tramp. But he had adopted as his motto an inscription he saw written in the old Scottish dialect over a dilapidated doorway in the West Bow—"He that tholes overcomes"—and he made up his mind to thole, and bear the burden of life with brave and manly patience. He was not even allowed to read in the shop, and he could only do a little study by getting up early in the morning, especially in summer, when light cost nothing. "In this way," he says, "I made some progress in French, with the pronunciation of which I was already familiar from the speech of the prisoners

of war at Peebles. I likewise dipped into several books of solid worth, such as Smith's 'Wealth of Nations,' Locke's 'Human Understanding,' Paley's 'Moral Philosophy,' and Blair's 'Belles-Lettres,' fixing the leading facts and theories in my memory by a note-book kept for that purpose." Another odd wav he had of eking out his scanty wages was to go every morning early. and read for a couple of hours some amusing book, such as "Roderick Random," to a baker and his two sons, whilst they were working at their "batch," in their shop in Canal Street, his fee for this literary service being a penny roll drawn hot from the oven. Each day of the week was one round of ceaseless, cheerless, sordid drudgery, save Sunday, when the poor lad went home to visit the mother he loved so dearly, and who, as may be easily surmised, was passionately proud of her boy, who was thus bravely and uncomplainingly battling with the world. Her advice, which was to "ave haud forrit," was all the comfort or help he had in the universe. One of their evenings was miserable enough, however. When the lad went home, wet and weary, he found his father had lost his situation, and the family again flung on the world. The heart-broken mother and her boy sat up in the dark consulting as to what was to be done. She was to take a small shop and try and earn a little money in that way. "It was little I could do," says William Chambers, in a pathetic passage of his autobiographical recollections, and a poor apprentice with four shillings a week to live on could not be expected to do much. "Still," he says, "some insignificant sayings were at her disposal, and so was a windfall over which I had cause for rejoicing. By a singular piece of good fortune, I had the previous day been presented with half a guinea by a good-hearted tradesman, on being sent to him with the agreeable intelligence that he had got the sixteenth of a twenty thousand pound prize in the State Lottery. The little bit of gold was put into my mother's hand. With emotion too great for words, my own hand was pressed gratefully in return. The loving pressure of that unseen hand in the midnight gloom, has it not proved a more than ordinary blessing of a mother on her son?"

Meantime another question agitated the Chambers family—what was to be done with Robert, a studious lad, with quaint archæological and literary tastes. Poverty shut the doors of the university on him; as a clerk he was a failure. William made the bold suggestion that he should strike out for himself into life as a bookseller, no matter in how humble a way. Some old books, relies of the paternal library, were gathered together, and with these and a few cheap Bibles, the boy began business as a bookstall keeper, at sixteen years of age, in 1818, in a little shop in Leith Walk. In May, 1819, William Chambers' apprenticeship came to an end, and he determined that he would not serve anybody any longer. His capital was the five shillings which he drew for his previous week's wages. He took a little shop in the same place that Robert's had stood-for by that time the younger brother was forced to remove, owing to some alterations in the buildings, which, however, were completed when William wanted a place of business. His rent was £10 a year. He could not even get a few old books at home to start with, as Robert had used them all up. He therefore literally began without stock, capital, or prospects. Whilst doing a temporary job at a great trade sale organised by the agent of a London publisher, young Chambers, in reply to a question of the agent's, told him his plight. Struck by the honest frankness of the lad, this gentleman offered him £10 worth of his samples, on the usual credit. With his five shillings of wages he bought a few rough deal boards, which he made into a counter. This he put on a pair of trestles outside his door, and so, on a fine sunny June morning, he began business on his own account. The lad was fired by the example of James Luckington, that eminent bookseller, who had begun life as a stall-keeper, with a stock hardly worth a five-

pound note, and in 1792 had retired on the profits of a business worth £5,000 a year. To eke out his slender resources, William Chambers took to copying poems and elegant trifles in showy styles of ornamental caligraphy. Then a craving came upon the young stall-keeper to possess a printing press and types. For three pounds he bought an old rickety apparatus, which, he says, emitted a "jangling, creaking noise, like a shrick of anguish," when worked. He also procured about thirty-five pounds' weight of worn-out type, and thus equipped, he began life as a printer. He had to learn type-setting, and grope his way through the mechanical difficulties of the art as best he could. His first effort was a handy little pocket edition of the songs of Robert Burns. This he set up by instalments of eight small pages at a time. These he printed off, and then, having re-arranged the type, went on with a second lot. Seven hundred and fifty copies he printed in this way. They were bound by himself, and sold for a shilling a-piece. After paving all expenses, he found he had made £9 by this first boyish speculation as a publisher. After this he did a little business as a job-printer, and started a diminutive circulating library in connection with his stall. He enlarged his stock of type, adapted it for pamphlet work, and, in conjunction with his brother Robert, started a small periodical, entitled the Kuleidoscope, or Edinturgh Literary Amusement, the first number of which was issued on Saturday, October 6, 1821 The work, both literary and mechanical, was done by the brothers themselves, but the venture barely paid expenses, so it was dropped in January, 1822.

By dint of hard work and frugality, the brothers increased their stock to about the value of £200, and Robert removed to a shop in India Place, whilst William rented one in Broughton Street. Edinburgh. In 1822 Robert wrote a little book entitled "Illustrations of the Author of Waverley," containing amusing sketches of the supposed originals of some of the principal characters in the novels. Of this work William Chambers was printer, bookbinder, and publisher. It was a success, and a second edition was issued in IS24. But the first book which brought the brothers into intimate relations with the Scottish literary world was Robert Chambers' "Traditions of Edinburgh," in the plan and production of which they anticipated Sir Walter Scott and Mr. Kirkpatrick Sharpe, who intended to issue a similar production in partnership. The book, as is well known, consisted of quaint and amusing particulars about old houses and families and strange characters in the northern metropolis. It was issued in numbers, the first of which was a surprising success. William Chambers was both printer and publisher, "the whole case and press-work," he says, "being, as hitherto, executed with my own hands-a piece of duty of which I entertain a pleasant remembrance." An over-large edition was floated, which was rather too much for the slender capital of the brothers. A considerable portion was transmitted to a London publisher for sale, but with results so unsatisfactory that William Chambers determined to go to the metropolis to "see after matters." When he arrived, on a fine summer evening in June, 1825, he called on an artist in Westminster, Mr. John Clark, to whom he had a letter of introduction. "A long walk," he says, "brought me to Mr. Clark's door. It was opened by a sprightly young lady, his daughter, whom I had never seen before. The interview with the family was agreeable. An intimacy ensued, and some years afterwards, when the fates were propitious, the sprightly young lady who had chanced to open the door became my wife." Luckily, he ordered the copies of the "Traditions" to be returned, saving them from the creditors of the firm to whom they had been consigned, and Mr. William Tait, of Edinburgh, purchased the copyright of the book for between three and four hundred pounds. It has been since bought back by the originators, and new and vastly improved editions have been put in the market. A clever ancedotic work, entitled "Walks in Edinburgh," issued in 1825, was the next venture of the

brothers. Following it came "Popular Rhymes of Scotland," and the "Picture of Scotland" (1826). William and Robert Chambers were now making money, and they were in tolerably prosperous circumstances. Their father, however, again became a stumbling-block in their way. He suffered himself to be led into a foolish and unsuccessful litigation, the costs of which had to be met by his sons, though they had vigorously opposed the proceedings from the outset. In this way they lost the greater part of their painfully-hoarded savings. About this time William Chambers got up a topographical work, "The Book of Scotland," which he sold for thirty pounds to a publisher; and he and his brother got a hundred pounds from another publisher for preparing a "Gazetteer of Scotland," the major part of the book being done by William. In 1832 he projected the great work of his life, the celebrated Journal, which was the forerunner of all cheap periodical literature of a wholesome, elevating, unsectarian, sensible, and instructive kind. The first number appeared on the 4th of February, 1832, and it must be said that everybody, including the projector's brother Robert, thought the speculation a hazardous one. William Chambers' courage won for the Journal the success it merited. In a few days there was in Scotland alone a sale of fifty thousand copies. At the third number, when the English market was supplied, the sale was eighty thousand. From the outset Robert Chambers, though he took a gloomy view of the prospects of the periodical, threw himself heart and soul, with true brotherly affection, into the conduct of the literary department of William's daring enterprise. After the fourteenth number was issued, it was found that both brothers would have to relinquish their separate businesses, and join in partnership. From that time, therefore, the firm of W. and R. Chambers became known all over the world. Speaking of this partnership with his brother, William Chambers writes: "Such was the degree of mutual confidence between us, that not for the space of twenty-one years was it thought expedient to execute any memorandum of agreement." Though William Chambers wrote many of the most charming and instructive papers in the Journal, and though Robert never shirked his business duties when necessity laid any pressure on him, yet it may be said that the subject of this memoir was, on the whole, the commercial and administrative head of the firm, whilst Robert took more exclusively the charge of the literary department. It was the latter's pleasant essays that first gave the Journal a hold on the public mind; but then, without William's matchless business and administrative abilities, shrewd sense, critical good taste, and vigilant prudence in supervision, the undertaking would not have succeeded at a time when so many similar publications disastrously failed. Why so many cheap popular periodicals, backed by powerful organisations, did not succeed at this time, when William Chambers' Journal won such enormous popularity, has never been clearly understood. The publications of the Useful Knowledge Society are cases Mr. Chambers' own opinion is, that they were perhaps a little too abstruse for operatives, and made no proper provision for the culture of the imaginative faculties. "If," he says, "any other reason be wanted, it probably is the fact that a society cannot, as a rule, compete with private enterprise."

In 1834, the brothers issued their "Information for the People." After this venture came a series of about a hundred school-books—the "Chambers' Educational Course," only too familiar to many middle-class schoolboys. Whilst collecting information upon the subject of public education, William Chambers got materials together for a very pleasant sketch, entitled a "Tour in Holland and the Rhine Countries" (1839). Twenty volumes of a series entitled "Chambers' Miscellany of Useful and Entertaining Tracts," were issued about this time, and had an enormous circulation. The crowning enterprise of the firm, however, was their great "Encyclopædia, or

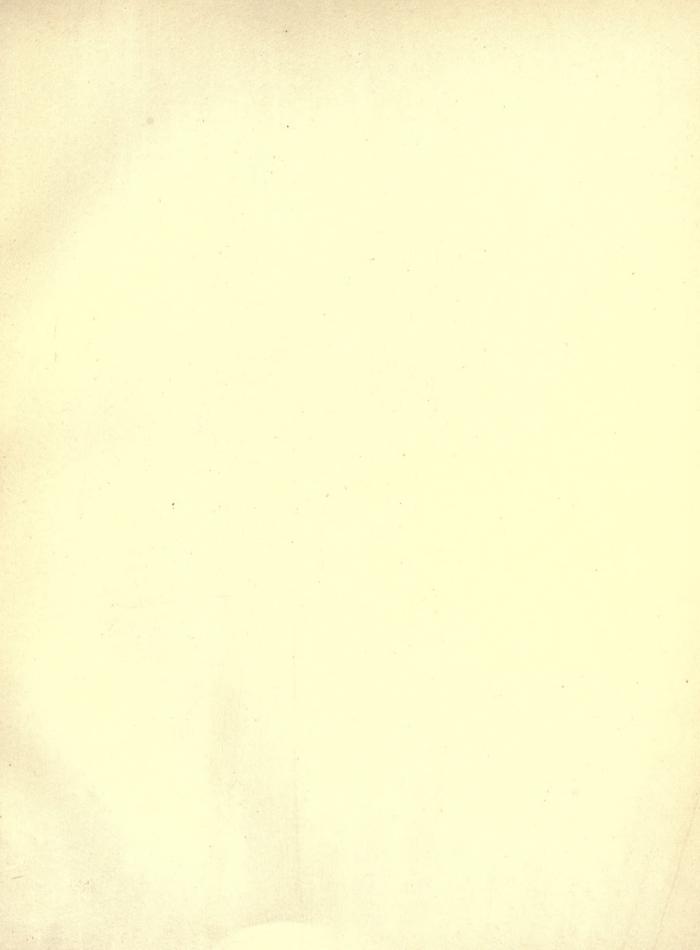
Dictionary of Universal Information for the People," a work begun in 1859, and completed in 1868. As a handy book of popular and ready alphabetical reference, on every conceivable subject, this work has no rival in Europe or America. The labour of the undertaking could hardly have been overcome, the scheme would not, perhaps, have been so ingeniously carried out, had the assistance of the learned Dr. Andrew Findlater not been procured as editor. This gentleman's truly encyclopædic range of erudition, and his vigilant assiduity as editor, peculiarly fitted him for superintending the publication of the most popular encyclopædia of the age. Another work of a similar character was the "Cyclopædia of English Literature," projected by Robert Chambers. In 1851, the firm produced the "Life and Works of Robert Burns." The poet's compositions were arranged in chronological order, and so introduced into the biography as to throw valuable side-lights on his character and career. The work passed through several editions, and became deservedly popular among all classes of society. The first proceeds of the sale were generously devoted to relieve the necessities of Burns' sister, Mrs. Begg, and her two daughters, who had fallen into destitute circumstances. In 1854 William Chambers wrote and published a very entertaining narrative of travel in the United States, entitled "Things as they are in America," and in 1860-61, the brothers projected the great work which gave Robert Chambers his death-blow. This was the "Book of Days" a miscellanv of popular antiquities in connection with the calendar, including anecdotes, biographies, curiosities of literature, and oddities of human life and character. Disappointed in promised literary assistance. Robert Chambers was obliged to go through the greater part of the task himself, and during the winter of 1861-62, he might be seen every day in the British Museum, working hard at this fatal book. The mental strain broke him down. Domestic bereavements aggravated the effects of ill-health, and with it, though he lived to finish his "Life of Smollett," his literary career closed. He died in St. Andrews in the beginning of the year 1870.

William Chambers, however, still lives, a hale, healthy man, as full of cheerfulness and intellectual vigour as in the days when he tugged at his jangling hand-press in the dingy little shop in Leith Walk. Although immersed in literary pursuits, and at the head of a large business concern, he never forgot the little old burgh on the Tweed of which he was a native. In 1849 he purchased the estate of Glenormiston, situated a few miles from Peebles, at which he has since spent some time every summer. In 1859 he presented to the community of Peebles a large suite of buildings for purposes of social and intellectual improvement, comprising a hall for lectures, a public library of fifteen thousand volumes, a reading-room, and gallery of art and museum. This extensive and useful establishment is understood to have cost the donor about £20,000.

In 1865 William Chambers was elected, amidst universal acclamation, Lord Provost of the city of Edinburgh, and his reign of office was marked by the energetic organisation of sanitary and architectural improvements in the older part of the city which he set on foot. In 1868 he was re-elected, and in 1869 he resigned office, amidst the regrets of all his fellow-citizens. In 1872 the University of Edinburgh conferred on him the degree of LL.D. Chambers' Journal is now conducted by him, and the able and chatty papers in its pages, with his well-known initials attached to them, are amongst its chief attractions. In addition to the works we have already mentioned, most of which are being re-issued in the form of new editions, William Chambers has produced the following:—"The Youth's Companion and Counsellor" (1860), "Something of Italy" (1862), "History of Peebleshire" (1864)—one of the very finest county

histories ever written-" Wintering in Mentone" (1870), "France: its History and Revolutions" (1871), "A Memoir of Robert Chambers" (1872), and a Scottish story, remarkable for its simple pathos and quiet humour, entitled "Alice Gilroy." In reviewing the life of this eminent publisher, one may say that he has so lived as to teach the world how the good, old-fashioned, common-place virtues can be exalted into the loftiest range of moral heroism; that he has left on record a grand and manly example of self-help, which Time can never obliterate from the admiring memory of succeeding generations. Life has to him been a sacred trust to be used for helping on the advancement of humanity, and for aiding the diffusion of knowledge, not a mere huckstering basis of operations for money-making and miserly accumulation. The moral to be drawn from his biography is that, with manly self-trust, with high and noble aims, with fair education, and with diligence, a man may, no matter how poor he be at the outset of his career, struggle upwards and onwards to fill a high social position, and enjoy no ordinary share of earthly honours and possessions. "He that tholes overcomes" was the inspiring motto of his career, and it is manifest that the very hardships he had to endure, the very obstacles he had to surmount, only served to discipline his character and fortify his courage in fighting the rough battle of life. To use his own words, "What satisfaction can be greater than that of having been a pioneer in that cheap literature movement, which, under a variety of conditions and auspices, has proved one of the most conspicuous engines of social improvement in the nineteenth century!" If any man ought to enjoy that satisfaction, it is William Chambers, of Edinburgh.

[The portrait prefixed to this memoir is copied, by permission, from a plotograph by P. Devine, Edinburgh.]



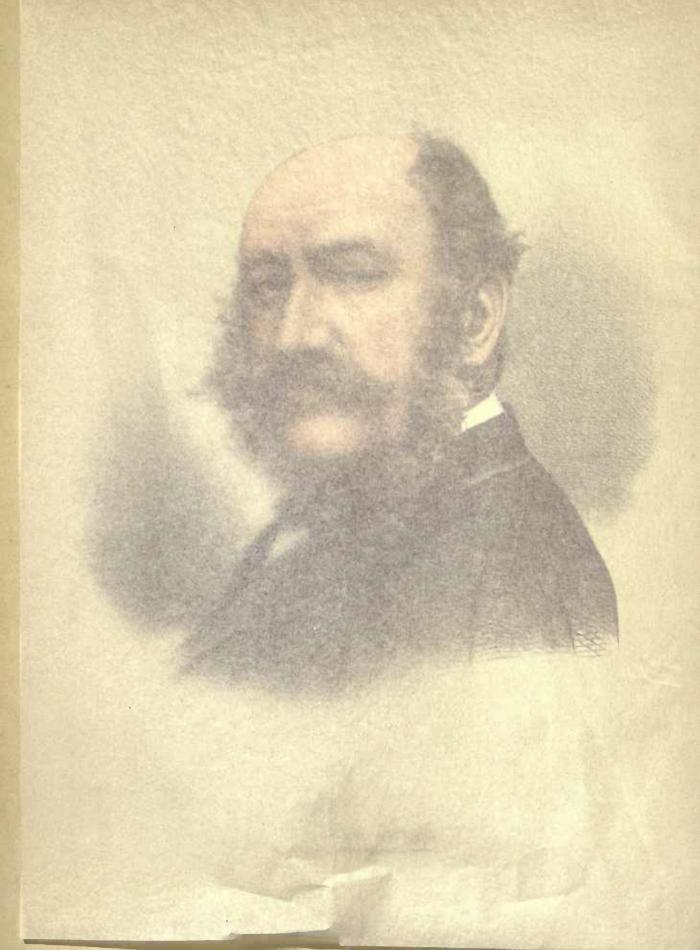


Beanfort.

THE DUKE OF BEAUFORT.

TTHE Duke of Beaufort claims a glace in the NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY as a representative I country gentleman. He is beyond doubt the completest representative of that large and cheerful class now living. In his love of field sports, and his proficiency in their practice; in his affection for dogs and horses, and his intimate knowledge of their points, and of the method of their breeding; in his liking for farming, and his princely expenditure upon new processes and inventions; in his almost regal hospitality, he is very admirably characteristic of those distinguishing leanings which have marked the English country gentleman since the days when Cedric the Saxon kept open hall for such as chose to come; hunted the wild boar and the deer in the forests of the pleasant midland country; and prided himself on his blood, his generosity, the happiness of his tenantry, and the beauty of his breed of hounds. "None but the hunter," says the song, "knows the hunter's joys." An euthusiastic sporting writer declares it is lucky for us as a nation that the English love of sport is so prevalent. "Once do away with our country sports, and farewell to those happy country seats that now scatter comfort around them through every English county. Our climate is not so inviting but that the rich may seek to change its winter for summer skies elsewhere; and once let the habit of seeking other shores for pleasure become fixed, and we may have to complain as loudly of absenteeism as our Irish brethren. Can the spirit which sends us out on sporting expeditions all over the world be curbed? Sport is the very breath of our nostrils, and our brightest and most cultivated intellects are not ashamed to own its influence."

English sportsmen are inclined rather to plume themselves upon the position which the Duke of Beaufort holds among them. The British nobleman has a choice of many parts, and may if he pleases play more than one with credit to himself and with huge satisfaction to that section of the public whose tastes he flatters by himself possessing them: but no rôle which he has it in his power to choose is likely to bring him a greater popularity than that which the Duke of Beaufort has adopted. It may perhaps be as fitly said that his coreer has adopted him as that he has adopted it. He was born into the atmosphere in which he now lives. A keen love of field sports is hereditary in the Somerset family. The Duke is a great coachman-not a holiday one, but a master in the art. This, too, is an hereditary gift, for his father was one before him, and his sonsespecially Lord Worcester-are followers in his steps. He is president of the Four-in-Hand Club, and the Coaching Club, and makes a point of appearing as regularly at the "meet" of wheels at Hyde Park Corner in the coaching season as he does at that other meet in the Christian Malford country, where his neat, firm-sitting figure and that of his big grey Claude du Val are better known than any other sight the whole countryside has to show. One who writes of him as though he knew him well remarks that those who are familiar with the Duke of Beaufort in the Park and St. James's Street on the box of his ceach, or at the bow-window of White's, do not look on him in the character



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THE Duke of Beaufort claims a place in the NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY as a representative country gentleman. He is beyond doubt the completest representative of that large and cheerful class now living. In his love of field sports, and his proficiency in their practice; in his affection for dogs and horses, and his intimate knowledge of their points, and of the method of their breeding; in his liking for farming, and his princely expenditure upon new processes and inventions; in his almost regal hospitality, he is very admirably characteristic of those distinguishing leanings which have marked the English country gentleman since the days when Cedric the Saxon kept open hall for such as chose to come; hunted the wild boar and the deer in the forests of the pleasant midland country; and prided himself on his blood, his generosity, the happiness of his tenantry, and the beauty of his breed of hounds. "None but the hunter," says the song, "knows the hunter's joys." An enthusiastic sporting writer declares it is lucky for us as a nation that the English love of sport is so prevalent. "Once do away with our country sports, and farewell to those happy country seats that now scatter comfort around them through every English county. Our climate is not so inviting but that the rich may seek to change its winter for summer skies elsewhere; and once let the habit of seeking other shores for pleasure become fixed, and we may have to complain as loudly of absenteeism as our Irish brethren. Can the spirit which sends us out on sporting expeditions all over the world be curbed? Sport is the very breath of our nostrils, and our brightest and most cultivated intellects are not ashamed to own its influence."

English sportsmen are inclined rather to plume themselves upon the position which the Duke of Beaufort holds among them. The British nobleman has a choice of many parts, and may if he pleases play more than one with eredit to himself and with huge satisfaction to that section of the public whose tastes he flatters by himself possessing them; but no rôle which he has it in his power to choose is likely to bring him a greater popularity than that which the Duke of Beaufort has adopted. It may perhaps be as fitly said that his career has adopted him as that he has adopted it. He was born into the atmosphere in which he now lives. A keen love of field sports is hereditary in the Somerset family. The Duke is a great coachman—not a holiday one, but a master in the art. This, too, is an hereditary gift, for his father was one before him, and his sonsespecially Lord Worcester—are followers in his steps. He is president of the Four-in-Hand Club, and the Coaching Club, and makes a point of appearing as regularly at the "meet" of wheels at Hyde Park Corner in the coaching season as he does at that other meet in the Christian Malford country, where his neat, firm-sitting figure and that of his big grey Claude du Val are better known than any other sight the whole countryside has to show. One who writes of him as though he knew him well remarks that those who are familiar with the Duke of Beaufort in the Park and St. James's Street on the box of his coach, or at the bow-window of White's, do not look on him in the character with which he is most familiar, and which fits him best. He has been something of everything-a soldier, a senator, and a courtier—but he has always been above everything a country gentleman and a sportsman. "We must go down to Gloueestershire," writes this chronicler, "and see him at home at Badminton among his people, and in his father's house—the good landlord, the princely host, the model of courtesy to high and low, and a master of hounds whose superior is not in the country." The field over which the Duke of Beaufort holds control is a large one, but it is always well ordered and well under his firm, and if need be stern, control. It is not often necessary among a company so well ordered that the voice of the Master should be raised in rebuke; but if an offender against the rules of hunting should be there, he may rely upon it that his offence will not easily escape the keen and observant eve of the Master, and that the rebuke which will follow will be alike severe and just. "The Duke," says the writer before alluded to, "is not a hard rider, but his knowledge of the country is so good that he is always well up, and the faces of some riding men when, at the end of a run which they think they have had all to themselves, the Duke appears on the scene are amusing to study. His specialité in hunting is, we should say, his wonderful eye for a fox. He has been known to sit on the top of his horse on Christian Malford Wood among three hundred horsemen, and his has been the only eye that could make out the line a fox was taking in the vale below. He has the royal gift of memory, and never forgets a face he has once seen or a name he has once heard. Conspicuous among his equals for that high-bred courtesy which somehow in these easy-going days one does not so constantly see, there is no one so humble whose salutation the Duke does not return."

The present head of the House of Somerset is really a sportsman to the manner born. The Somersets have been mighty hunters from the time that their name became a power in the land. They have hunted the big game, too, as well as the little, and have always been found in the former chase in that time "when the gallants of England were up for the king." Henry Somerset, fifth Earl of Woreester, held the last stronghold of England, from which the royal standard floated in defiance of the Puritans. His defence of Ragland Castle—of which we shall have something more to say further on—is matter of history, and so is the despatch of the late Lord Hardinge, in which, mentioning the death of a cadet of the house at Moodkee, he spoke of him as having fallen "fighting with the hereditary courage of his race." The Somersets have been brave because they could not help so being, as they have been sportsmen because it was in their blood and lineage so to be.

Henry Charles Fitzroy-Somerset, Duke of Beaufort, was born on the 1st of February, 1824, and succeeded to the title on the death of his father, the seventh duke, on the 17th of November, 1853. In addition to the Dukedom of Beaufort, His Graee holds the titles of Marquis of Worcester, Earl of Glamorgan, Viscount Grosmont, Baron of Bottetourt and Baron Herbert (both by writ), Baron of Ragland, Chepstow, and Gower, and Baron Beaufort of Caldecot Castle, in the peerage of England. The creation of the title, Baron Bottetourt, dates as far back as the beginning of the thirteenth century; whilst the Dukedom of Beaufort is nearly two centuries old.

The House of Somerset is derived from a branch of the house of Plantagenet, "whence it is observable that it has flourished with the titles of dukes, marquises, and earls, and has not descended to a lower degree these seven hundred years;" the present duke being lineally descended from "old John of Gaunt, time-honoured Lancaster." John, Duke of Lancaster, had issue by Catherine Swinford, daughter of Sir Payn Roet, alias Guyen, King of Arms, and widow of Sir Otes Swinford, knight. He married her afterwards, and caused all-

his children previously born to be named Beaufort, from Castle Beaufort, in Anjou, the place of their nativity. His children were all after his marriage legitimated by Act of Parliament. John, the eldest, was created Earl of Somerset, and since then the story of the line runs on in an almost kingly way. With its genealogy almost every one of the old and noble names of England is somewhere inwoven. The story of the old French wars and of the Crusades is thick with the chronicle of their military achievements. Nor is the line without achievements in another direction. Edward Somerset, second marquis, succeeded to the title and estates in 1646. He was the author of a book curiously entitled after the old fashion, "A Century of the Names and Scantlings of such Inventions as at present I can call to mind to have tried and perfected, which (my former Notes being lost) I have, at the instance of a powerful Friend, endeavoured now in the year 1655 to set these down in such a way as may sufficiently instruct me to put any of them in Practice." This curious work was first printed in 1663, and was reprinted in 1746. Lord Orford very foolishly speaks of the book as an amazing piece of folly, but a more competent judge speaks of the Marquis of Somerset as "one of the greatest mechanical geniuses that ever appeared in the world." It has been asserted that from this book was drawn the first idea of the steam-engine. The marquis is said to have published also a prior work entitled "The History of a Century of Inventions."

The present Duke of Beaufort was educated at Eton. He did not, however, remain there long, for we find that at the age of 19—that is, in 1841—he was gazetted to a lieutenancy in the 1st Life Guards, with which distinguished regiment he served for six years, when he exchanged for a captaincy in the 7th Hussars. His Grace acted as aide-de-eamp to the Duke of Wellington in 1842, and to Viscount Hardinge in 1852; and in 1867 he received from the Sultan of Turkey the distinction of the 1st Class Order of the Osmanli. In 1858, having then retired from the army, he became commandant of the Royal Gloucestershire Hussais.

In 1846, the Duke of Beaufort, being then Marquis of Worcester, was returned to the House of Commons for one of the divisions of the county of Gloucester, which constituency he continued to represent down to 1853, when he succeeded to the peerage. Under the Conservative administration of 1858-59, he held the office of Master of the Horse, the functions of which comprise the management of the Royal studs.

The Master of the Horse is esteemed the third great officer at Court, giving place only to the Lord Steward and Lord Chamberlain of the Household. The Master of the Horse was anciently called Erne Stalmi or Enstabler, to whom a higher employment and power were then given. The duties of the office now comprise the charge of ordering and disposing of all matters relating to the sovereign's stables, races, breed of horses, &c. He has likewise the power of commanding the equerries and pages, grooms, riders of the great horses, coachmen, farriers, smiths, saddlers, and all other tradesmen employed in the king or queen's stables, to all of whom the Averrer by his warrant administers the oath for the true and faithful discharge of their duty. The Averrer, by order of the Master of the Horse, swears in all the officers belonging to the Royal stables. He also has the superintendence of all accounts for the expenses of the stables, and of the payment of all the officers and servants of the department. The Master of the Horse has the charge of all the revenues appointed for the service and maintenance of the Royal horses, and he only, of all officers of the Court, has the privilege of making use of any horses, pages, or footmen belonging to the Royal stables. At any solemn cavalcade he rides next behind the sovereign; in the case of a Queen Regnant, in the carriage with Her Majesty; and he formerly used to lead a horse of State. Though he neither

has rank in the Act of Precedency, nor is mentioned by his official title in the writ of summons, yet he precedes, by virtue of his office, other grand officers of State in the Court, and is placed next the Lord Privy Seal. The salary attached to the office is £2,500 per annum. Neither it nor its companion office, that of the Chief Equerry, are at all sinecures. William J. Thoms. writing in 1844, in his "Book of the Court," says, "Her Majesty's equestrian skill, and fondness for that healthful recreation, horse-exercise, bid fair to render these appointments as stirring as they were in the days of George III." How stirring they were then may be gathered from an anecdote in Wroxall's "Anecdotes of My Own Time," where he says of the simple-minded and genial old king, "It was his delight to mount his horse before the Equerry-in-Waiting could possibly be aware of it; often in severe and unpleasant weather"alas, poor Equerry !--" which rarely deterred him; always at an early hour. One of his Equerries has assured me that when thus surprised, he has been compelled to follow the king down Windsor Hill with scarcely time to pull up his stockings under his boots. No place about His Majesty's Court or person—so long as he retained his intellect—could indeed be less of a sineeure than the office of Equerry. The appointments were very inadequate to the fatigue and exertions of the post—a fact of which the king was so well aware, that he used to say he had fewer applications for the employment of Equerry than for any other in his donation."

The Marquis, while he retained his seat in the House of Commons, did not often address the House, although on several occasions, when it was occupied with questions upon which he felt a special interest, he threw a good deal of practical knowledge and shrewd sense into the debate. In 1849 he introduced a Bill for the improvement of the law relating to cruelty to animals. In moving its second reading, he remarked that it was not a new measure, but simply an improvement on the Bill of 1835, the principal alterations being to fine the owner, instead of the servant, in case of over-driving horses in private vehicles, and to enable magistrates to inflict a fine of £5 in place of the restricted fine of 40s. up to that time provided for. This alteration, he remarked, was one which the police magistrates of our large towns and of the metropolis had strongly recommended. The measure was received with general satisfaction, and after undergoing some modifications in committee, passed into law in the course of the same year.

In March, 1853, on the bringing up of the Customs and Corn Importation Report, and on the resolution with respect to the importation of timber, he spoke at some length. He strongly opposed the reduction of the duty on Baltic timber, urging that the carrying trade of Canadian timber was almost entirely in the hands of Bristol merchants, and that it almost exclusively employed British seamen; while, on the other hand, at least five-sixths of the Baltic timber trade were carried on by Prussians, Russians, Danes, Swedes—by all the nations which lie upon the Baltic. It was calculated that in the Baltic trade there were employed 32,900 seamen, and of these the number of Englishmen was only 6,505. Were they, he asked, to legislate for the benefit of the nations lying about the Baltic, or for the benefit of Englishmen. He could not see how the British merchants were to contend against such odds as were brought against them, by the reduction of the duty on Baltic timber. The debate which took place on this question was of unusual length, and the division was one of the most significant of the session.

In Badminton, the Duke of Beaufort is the possessor of one of the noblest seats in England. It was founded by a member of the house of Somerset, and since the destruction of Ragland Castle in Monmouthshire, which was reduced to bare walls in the time of the Civil

War, it has been the principal residence of the head of the Somerset family. Previously, Badminton Castle was the seat of the Botelers, who held it at a very early period of history, Ralph, the son of Maurice Boteler, of Badminton, who lived in the reign of Henry III., married Maud, the daughter and heiress of William Pantolf, Baron Wern, and in her right succeeded to the Barony of Wern, "and had summons to Parliament accordingly"—so says the chronicle of the noble house. He died-this William Pantolf, Baron of Wern-not only in possession of this estate, but of the whole hundred of Grimbold's Ash, in 1274. The Barony of Wern died out in the year 1365, but the estate at Badminton continued in this family nearly four hundred years, Nicholas, the son of William Boteler, was lord of the manor of Badminton in 1608. about that year this same Nicholas parted with the old house and estates of his household—that four-hundred-year-old heritage-to the honourable Sir Thomas Somerset, third son of Edward, fourth Earl of Woreester, who in 1626 was created Viscount Cashel, in the county of Tipperary, Ireland. His lordship, by his wife Eleanor, daughter of Viscount Buttevant, left an only daughter and heiress, Elizabeth, who lived unmarried, and was buried at Ragland Castle in Monmouth-She gave Badminton to Henry, Lord Herbert, who was afterwards created Duke of Beaufort.

Internally the house is splendid in its decorations. The rooms are large and elegantly ornamented. In the great dining-room is a profusion of earving in wood from the hand of the one great artist in that line, Grinling Gibbons. The visitor may have pointed out to him, too, "A Curious Representation of the Sovereigns of Europe by Various Animals," painted by Salvator Rosa. The park at Badminton is very extensive, being nearly nine miles in circumference. It is of an oblong form, about three miles long and nearly two miles wide. There is none of the original house in which the old Botelers dwelt at Badminton, before the Somersets came, now left The old country records describe it as a substantial and even noble building, but it was insufficient for that splendid Somerset into whose hands it came, and who erected in place of it the Badminton Hall which now stands there. David Williams, an antiquary, who in the year 1796 printed by subscription a history of Monmouthshire, gives there a description of that Ragland Castle of which mention has already been made as the former seat of the Somersets. He speaks of it as a noble and extensive ruin, and remarks that "the construction of the butlery and kitchen indicate almost unbounded hospitality." That is a true trait of the house of Somerset, and that first Duke of Beaufort, who built the hall at Badminton, needed a right royal house in which to dispense that regal hospitality for which his family had been so long, and still is, famous.

In the year 1702, Queen Anne visiting the University of Oxford, and going thence to Bath, the Duke of Beaufort met Her Majesty and retinue not far from Circncester, on August the 29th, accompanied by great numbers of clergymen, gentlemen, and freeholders of the county, and conducted the Queen to Badminton, where a very splendid entertainment was presented by His Grace for Her Majesty, who was very well pleased with it, as was also Her Majesty's Royal Consort, Prince George of Denmark.

It is as a sportsman and a master of foxhounds, rather than as a military man or a politician, that the present Duke has come prominently before the world. The Somersets have ever been noted for their love and patronage of field sports, and the motto of the noble house—Mutare vel timere sperno, which may be interpreted, "I scorn to fear or change"—seems to have a peculiar significance in the hereditary passion for the chase which has distinguished the family down to the present time. His Grace is declared to be one of the best representatives of masters

of hounds anywhere to be found. His establishment at Badminton is pronounced to be one of the largest, oldest, and most perfect in the kingdom. By the sportsman, the Duke of Beaufort is regarded as the beau ideal of a master; for he not only maintains the hounds at his own expense, but hunts them six days a week-a programme which is imitated by very few other packs. In addition to being one of the most liberal and assiduous of masters, His Grace has always received much commendation for his pre-eminently practical views, and for his readiness of resource. On more than one occasion, he has, we are told, when losing a huntsman, taken charge of the pack himself, hunted them himself, and superintended all the minutiæ of kennel discipline, without which condition cannot be maintained. From a description published some years ago, we learn that staghounds were kept at Badminton at a very early date, and that in the family mansion there are some spirited antique paintings, representing various events of interest that occurred in the chase in olden times, and containing portraits of the Somersets and other distinguished sportsmen of bygone centuries. The staghounds, however, were abandoned for foxhounds during the minority of the fifth Duke of Beaufort-the present Duke's grandfather—and the pack has been kept up with lavish liberality to the present day. When the hounds came into the possession of His Grace, they had reached a very high state of perfection, under the eare of William Long, who had been in the service of the Beauforts for half a century. Long met with a serious accident in the field shortly afterwards, and it was found necessary to relieve him of his duties, the post of kennel huntsman being assigned to him instead. For some time the Duke conducted the field operations in person, as we have intimated, with great tact and practical ability; but in the spring of 1858 he appointed Thomas Clarke—who was at liberty in consequence of Mr. Morrell resigning the Old Berkshire Hounds—to take charge of the Badminton establishment. Not that there had been any lack of sport during the time His Graee acted as his own huntsman; for it is recorded in turf history that the Duke's perfect acquaintance with the country and the run of the foxes, together with his thorough knowledge of the "noble science," never failed when the hounds required assistance. It can be well understood, however, that a nobleman with so many calls upon his time and attention should find it necessary to transfer the horn into the hands of a competent professional. It might have been thought that a pack bred with superlative care, and trained by unerring judgment, was searcely eapable of improvement; but His Grace, still as ardent as ever for perfection in his kennel, purchased a number of the hounds belonging to Mr. Morrell's pack, which were bred in with the Badminton blood with remarkable success. "Few," says an enthusiastic sporting writer, "love to see hounds do their own work better than the Duke, and though none get away quicker after a fox, there is no galloping and shouting to get their heads up. As an instance of the interest he has personally taken in the pack, we remember once seeing the Duke himself pull up and go back after a young bitch that was left running another fox in cover when the hounds went away, and bringing her up to us at a check long afterwards; thus for her sake sacrificing a long hunting run." We are told, too, that in no country does a better understanding exist with the farmers than in that surrounding Badminton. The district is so full of foxes that they are often to be found in pits and under walls in the open fields. It is the popularity of the master that ensures this preservation; and to show the consideration of the Duke for those over whose land he hunts, it is stated that in one year he purchased over 500 brace of pheasants for distribution amongst the farmers. Far or near, a well-loaded drag is always the conveyance to the meet; and the hounds are vanned both out and home by a team of mules from the Badminton stables.

As a patron of the turf, His Grace has gained a fair share of success on the race-course with horses of his own breeding. Vauban, Gomera, Siberia, Ceylon, Europa, and others might be cited as examples. The horses purchased turned out scarcely so lucky; for though Lord Ronald bore the blue and white hoofs many a time to victory, the high-priced Rustic sadly failed in his Derby mission, and in fact never bore ont his two-year-old promise. The neat-looking, half-bred Birdhill also did yeoman's service in his day. "Popular, however," says the writer before quoted, "as the blue and white became, it is in the buff and blue that the Duke most shines; and then, when on one of his weight-carriers, watching the dog-pack fly the walls in their stride, or the bitches streaming away over the grass, he is in his element. Hunting in his native county, a great portion of it his own property, he not only spends his own income amongst his own people, but does things in such a style that large numbers of visitors are attracted to the neighbouring towns and villages, where every available stable is taken up during the season."

To complete his character as a country gentleman, the Duke of Beaufort is a large farmer. Smithfield and the agricultural shows have proclaimed his success in stock-breeding; and in a certain Clydesdale stallion which was once to be seen—perhaps is to be seen now—at Badminton, he was credited by *connoisseurs* with the possession of one of the most handsome cart-sires in England.

The author of a personal account of the Duke of Beaufort, writing in a journal which professes especially to deal with the doings of the beau monde, speaks thus of the Duke of Beaufort in one of his most favourite aspects:—"It is a summer afternoon in the height of the season. There is a block at Hyde Park Corner, and omnibus drivers and people in cabs hurrying to catch trains are losing their tempers. Within the gates earriages of all descriptions extend in an unbroken line from the Achilles statue nearly to the Magazine on the one side, and far up towards the Marble Arch on the other. The throng of pedestrians is enormous, and the throng is densest before and around the open space in front of the Magazine, where some eighteen or twenty coaches are drawn up. It is the meet of one of our driving clubs, and the cream of London society, its statesmen, its authors, its beautiful women and fashionable men, the bees and drones of the great hive, have assembled to assist at a recognised sight of the London season. The coachmen are objects of special interest, as one after another they bring their coaches into line. Society knows them well, nobles and commoners, the majority gratifying an hereditary taste when they mount the box, the others well content to follow such leaders. But from among them there is one well-known figure missing, and society is anxious; for a meet without him would be as a play shorn of one of its principal characters. The anxiety is soon allayed. A mounted policeman appears, holding up his hand and ordering the throng of pedestrians to keep back, and then the Duke of Beaufort brings his coach rapidly round the turn, and takes his place at the head of the line."

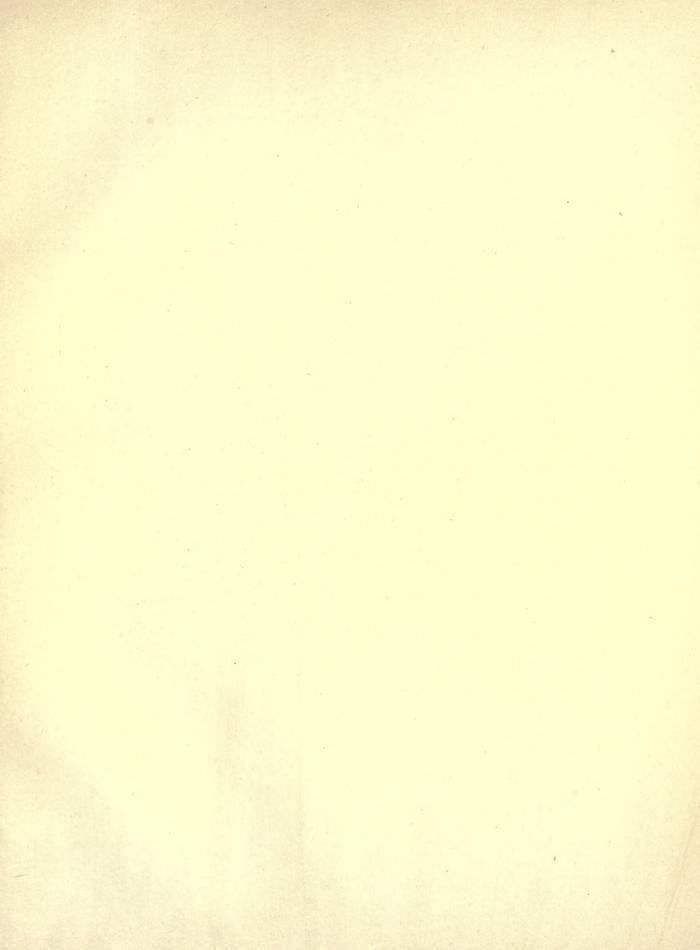
In such a position the Duke of Beaufort is the right man in the right place. He has a fund of coaching lore—stories of the coachmen of old days when he was an Eton boy, and used to drive the York House as much of the road from Chippenham to Windsor as he was allowed to do—stories that bring back the Wonders, the Rapids, and the Mazeppas to a generation now growing old—days when the railroad had not become the coachman's master, and he and such of his passengers as owned conservative tastes in those matters could sing with enthusiastic faith—

"Let the steam pot
Hiss till it's hot,
Give us the speed of the Tantivy trot."

In July, 1845, His Grace married Lady Georgiana Charlotte Curzon, eldest daughter of

the first Earl Howe. Seven children have been born to them, the first of whom—a son—died in his infancy. The eldest surviving son, and heir apparent, is the Marquis of Worcester, a captain in the Royal Horse Guards, who was born in 1847. The third son is Lord Henry Richard Charles Somerset, the member for Monmouthshire, who married in 1872 the eldest daughter of Earl Somers, of Eastnor Castle, Herefordshire. There are three other sons, Lord H. A. G. Somerset, an officer in the Royal Horse Guards, Lord H. E. B. Somerset, an officer in the Royal Welsh Fusiliers, and Lord H. F. F. Somerset, who attained his majority in 1876. His Grace has an only daughter, Lady Blanche Elizabeth Adelaide, who was born in March, 1856, and married, in July, 1874, John Henry, the fifth Marquis of Waterford.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by Mr. Bassano, 72, Piccadilly, London.]





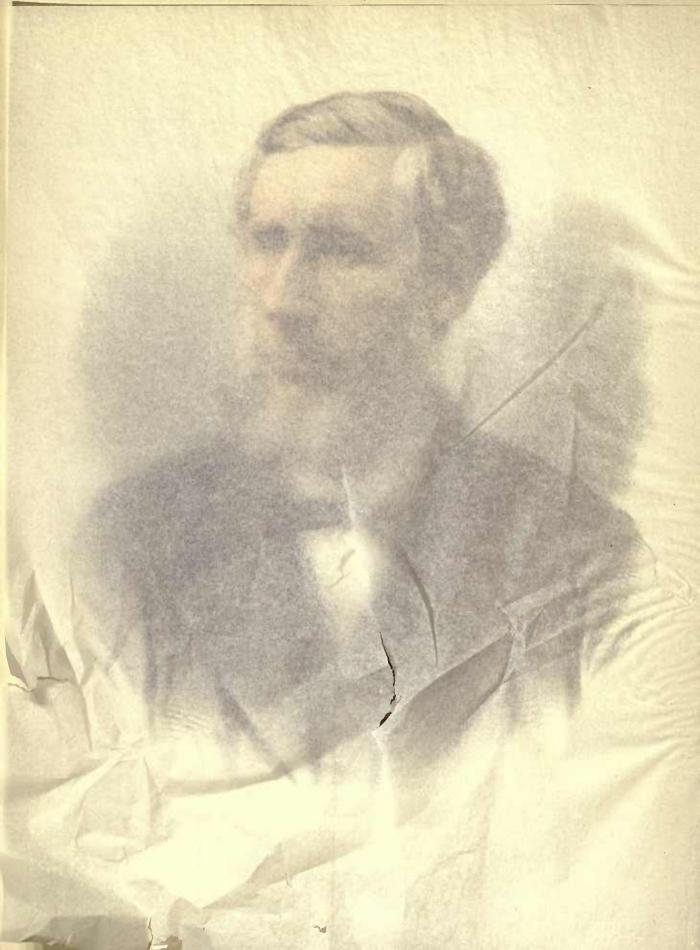
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PROFESSOR TYNDALL.

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The receives of Mr. Greenfield have proved that in 1670 some Luchsh Tyndalls left Glouce tershire and settled in Ireland, in the western part of which country descendants of the original emigrants are still to be found. The subject of our present biographical sketch sprang from this stock, having been born at Leighlin Bridge, county Carlow, Ireland, about the year 1820. In one of the later editions of the "Fragments of Science," Professor Tyndall thus speaks of his father, and of the training of his own early boyhood - spring from a source to which the Bible was specially dear, my early training was coulded amost exclusively to it. Born in I. land, I, like my predecessors for many generations, was truth to hold my own against the Church of Rome. I had a father whose memory ought to be to me a stay, and an example of mounting retitude and purity of life. Socially low, but mentally and morally high and ind parallal, w his own inner energies and affinition he obtained a knowledge of history which would not be shane; while the whole of the controversy between Prote tantism and Rowanism was at his time is' ends. At the pre-ent moment the works and characters which recomied him come as ta -off recollections to my mind: Claude and Bossnet, Chillingworth and Not, T. John J. Challoner and Milner, Pope and McGuire, and others whom I have for out the state of the man, to charged with the ammunition of controversy, was so respected by him Catholic follows on that they one and all put up their shutters when he died." He died in \$17, start's appealing upon his son the importance and de irability of living a life of indereduces and quoting to him, just before his death, Wolsey's famous words to Cromwell-Bart and har bet.

Mr. Tyndall received by education at a school in his native place, and when young winced an aptitude for one game. To one of his tentes—a Mr. John Cowell—le is mosted for his first in taction and ometry and algebra, and there exists an entire to go the bottom of such subject to be in hand. Whilst he was still a such, he happened to the up Carlyle's 'I at and it," and, though stirred by its amount force, a single perus I gave him but the manning. He therefore read it a second a third time, and feeling even the re-



PROFESSOR TYNDALL.

IN his "Essay on Criticism," Pope observes that "one science only will one genius fit," and goes on to remark that not only is the genius of any one individual "bounded to peculiar arts," but that his knowledge is also "confin'd to single parts" of the particular art in which he may be a proficient. These observations may be, and no doubt are, very true when applied to the majority of geniuses, but in the case of the distinguished man of science who is the subject of this memoir they entirely lose their point. Professor Tyndall is master, not of "one science only," but of many; and so far from his knowledge being "confin'd to single parts" of each or any of them, it extends to the minutest detail in the slightest way connected with the subject he has in hand.

The researches of Mr. Greenfield have proved that in 1670 some English Tyndalls left Gloucestershire and settled in Ireland, in the western part of which country descendants of the original emigrants are still to be found. The subject of our present biographical sketch sprang from this stock, having been born at Leighlin Bridge, county Carlow, Ireland, about the year 1820. In one of the later editions of the "Fragments of Science," Professor Tyndall thus speaks of his father, and of the training of his own early boyhood: - "Sprung from a source to which the Bible was specially dear, my early training was confined almost exclusively to it. Born in Ireland, I, like my predecessors for many generations, was taught to hold my own against the Church of Rome. I had a father whose memory ought to be to me a stay, and an example of unbending rectitude and purity of life. Socially low, but mentally and morally high and independent, by his own inner energies and affinities he obtained a knowledge of history which would put mine to shame; while the whole of the controversy between Protestantism and Romanism was at his fingers' ends. At the present moment the works and characters which occupied him come as far-off recollections to my mind: Claude and Bossuet, Chillingworth and Nott, Tillotson, Jeremy Taylor, Challoner and Milner, Pope and McGuire, and others whom I have forgotten. Still this man, so charged with the ammunition of controversy, was so respected by his Catholic fellow-townsmen that they one and all put up their shutters when he died." He died in 1847, strongly impressing upon his son the importance and desirability of living a life of independence, and quoting to him, just before his death, Wolsey's famous words to Cromwell-" Be just, and fear not."

Mr. Tyndall received his early education at a school in his native place, and when young evinced an aptitude for pure geometry. To one of his teachers—a Mr. John Conwill—he is indebted for his first instruction in geometry and algebra; and there exists an anecdote strongly confirmative of Mr. Tyndall's early desire to go to the bottom of such subjects as he took in hand. Whilst he was still a youth, he happened to take up Carlyle's "Past and Present," and, though stirred by its amazing force, a single perusal gave him but an inkling of its meaning. He therefore read it a second and a third time, and feeling even then that there

was more in it than he had been able to grasp, he proceeded to write, for his own satisfaction, an exhaustive analysis of every chapter. On various occasions Mr. Tyndall has gratefully acknowledged the influence for good which Mr. Carlyle has exercised upon his life; and in the Belfast address, delivered in 1874, he thus eloquently refers to the sage of Chelsea:—"I am reminded of one among us, hoary, but still strong, whose prophet-voice some thirty years ago, far more than any other of this age, unlocked whatever of life and nobleness lay latent in its most gifted minds—one fit to stand beside Socrates or the Maccabean Eleazar, and to dare and suffer all that they suffered and dared—fit, as he once said of Fichte, 'to have been the teacher of the Stoa, and to have discoursed of Beauty and Virtue in the groves of Academe.' With a capacity to grasp physical principles which his friend Goethe did not possess, and which even total lack of exercise has not been able to reduce to atrophy, it is the world's loss that he, in the vigour of his years, did not open his mind and sympathies to science, and make its conclusions a portion of his message to mankind."

Mr. Tyndall quitted school in 1839, and forthwith joined—at the suggestion of Lieutenant (now General) Wynne, and in the capacity of "civil assistant"—a division of the Ordnance Survey which was stationed in his native town. In a very short time he made himself acquainted with every detail of his new profession, and quickly acquired proficiency in surveying, mapping, and in trigonometrical observations and calculations.

In 1841, Mr. Tyndall was stationed with his division at Cork, and it was here that an incident occurred which has been pointed out as a turning-point of his career. At that date he was employed as a draughtsman, and in the same department with him was a Mr. Lawrence Ivers, a gentleman considerably Mr. Tyndall's senior. Mr. Ivers was a close observer of his younger colleagues; and one day, in the course of a walk, inquired of Mr. Tyndall in what manner he spent his leisure hours. The reply was not altogether satisfactory; and Mr. Ivers went on to remark, "You have five hours a day at your disposal, and this time ought to be devoted to systematic study. Had I, when I was your age, had a friend to advise me as I now advise you, instead of being in my present subordinate position, I should be the equal of Colby." (General Colby was at that time director of the Ordnance Survey.) This kindly advice went to the heart of the young draughtsman, and he determined at once to act upon it. The very next morning, and for twelve years after, he was up and studying between four and five o'clock in the morning. To this study, it is scarcely necessary to remark, Mr. Tyndall owed much of his success in after-life.

After the lapse of three years, Mr. Tyndall, seeing but little prospect of speedy promotion in the profession he had chosen, resolved to emigrate to America. He was, however, opposed by some of his friends, and particularly by the Dean of Leighliu, a relative of the celebrated Robert Boyle, who exhorted him not to quit this country. Just at this period the extraordinary "railway mania" broke out: Mr. Tyndall secured an engagement with an engineering firm at Manchester, and in that year was engaged in surveying operations in the Churnet and Dove Valleys, and on the banks of the Great Ouse in Bedfordshire. He removed to Halifax, Yorkshire, in 1845, where he was occupied with railway work. Nearly five years of Mr. Tyndall's life were spent in the service of the Ordnance Survey, and three in the employment of firms connected with the formation of railways. His work was characterised by accuracy and caution, and it is said that he has, on more than one occasion, retraced his steps many miles after a hard day's labour in order fully to satisfy himself that some "bench mark" upon which the accuracy of his levels depended was scenre.

Mr. Tyndall again changed his profession in 1847, accepting an appointment as teacher at Queenwood College, Hants. This was a newly-established institution, devoted in part to a junior school, and partly to the preliminary technical education of agriculturists and engineers. The college was surrounded by about 800 acres of land, where farming, surveying, and various engineering operations were practically taught. Mr. Edward Frankland (afterwards appointed Professor of Chemistry to the Royal Institution) was the chemist attached to the establishment, and in his laboratory Mr. Tyndall turned many of his spare hours to good account. A friendship sprang up between these two gentlemen; and in the following year—1848—they determined to relinquish their respective appointments, and to go abroad for the purpose of scientific study. They accordingly proceeded to the University of Marburg, in Hesse Cassel, where the celebrated Bunsen was at that time chemical professor. This eminent man took a strong liking to Mr. Tyndall, and it is principally to him that the subject of our sketch owes the final determination of his career. Mr. Tyndall attended the lectures of the learned professor, and studied under him in the laboratory, which latter was placed entirely at his service by the kindness of the great German master. His spare hours were occupied in writing "Reports of the Progress of Physical Science" for the Philosophical Magazine. He also translated the celebrated memoirs of Clausius, just then published, on "The Moving Force of Heat." He subsequently translated "Die Erhaltung der Kraft" from the original of Helmholtz. With regard to these translations he writes, in his introduction to the "Popular Scientific Lectures" of Helmholtz, published in 1873:—"Brought thus face to face with the great generalisation of the Conservation of Energy. I sought to the best of my ability to master it by independent thought in all its physical details. I could not forget my indebtedness to Helmholtz and Clausius, or fail to see the probable influence of their writings on the science of the coming time. For many years, therefore, it was my habit to place every physical paper published by these eminent men within the reach of purely English readers." He availed himself during his stay at Marburg of the opportunity of attending the lectures of Professors Knoblauch and Gerling, and worked practically in their physical cabinets. He likewise had the advantage of studying mathematics under Professor Stegmann:

The first scientific paper written by Mr. Tyndall was a mathematical essay on "Screw Surfaces," which formed the subject of his inaugural dissertation when taking his degree. He was, however, first known to the scientific world by his investigation "On the Magneto-Optic Properties of Crystals, and the Relation of Magnetism and Diamagnetism to Molceular Arrangement." This investigation was executed in conjunction with his friend Professor Knoblauch, and was published in the 'Philosophical Magazine, in 1850.

Mr. Tyndall went to Berlin in 1851, where he continued his researches in diamagnetism and the magnetic property of crystals in the laboratory of Professor Magnus. The entire apparatus of this distinguished physicist was placed at his disposal, and the professor treated him with every mark of regard. In the same year he returned to London, when he first became personally acquainted with Professor Faraday, and a friendship was then begun which lasted until Faraday's death, in August, 1867. Soon after his arrival in England he received a letter from General Sabine, offering to prepare the way towards his election as a Fellow of the Royal Society, and he was duly elected in 1852. In the June of the following year Mr. Tyndall was unanimously elected Professor of Natural Philosophy at the Royal Institution, Dr. Bence Jones and Mr. Faraday strongly supporting the appointment. He gave his first lecture at the Royal Institution on Friday evening, February 11, 1853. During the first three years of his residence in London,

Professor Tyndall devoted himself to an exhaustive investigation of diamagnetic polarity, and the general phenomena of diamagnetic force. Various memoirs on these subjects will be found in the "Philosophical Transactions," and Philosophical Magazines for those years. The "Philosophical Transactions" for 1855 contains a memoir "On the Nature of the Force by which Bodies are Repelled by the Poles of a Magnet," wherein a searching comparison is instituted between paramagnetic and diamagnetic phenomena. In another paper, entitled "Further Researches on the Polarity of the Diamagnetic Force," and by means of an apparatus invented by the famous Wilhelm Weber, he succeeded in removing the last published objections to the doctrine of diamagnetic polarity, and subsequently applied the doctrine in question to the explanation of all the phenomena exhibited by crystals in the magnetic field.

Professor Tyndall was made LL.D. of Cambridge in the year 1855; LL.D. of Edinburgh in 1866 (on which occasion his friend Mr. Thomas Carlyle was installed rector of the University); and D.C.L. of Oxford in June, 1873.

It was in 1849 that Mr. Tyndall first visited Switzerland-solely for the sake of fresh air and relaxation. Seven years after, in the company of his friend, Professor Huxley, he visited the Alps with an express scientific object—i.e., the application of certain views relative to the cleavage of slate-rocks to the structure of glacier iee. From year to year these visits were repeated. In 1857 the Professor was at Montanyert for nearly six weeks, when he made a complete investigation of the Mer de Glace and its tributaries. Mr. Hirst, who had been a colleague and pupil of his when at Halifax, materially assisted him in this matter. In 1860 Professor Tyndall published a book "On the Glaciers of the Alpst" in the first part of which are narrated the many perilous expeditions which the investigations described in the second part necessitated. Speaking of the ascent of Monte Rosa, without a guide, he says:-"'A world of clouds and mountains lay beneath me. Switzerland, with its pomp of summits, was clear and grand. Italy was also grand, but more than half obscured. Dark cumulus and dark crag vied in savagery, while at other places white snow and white clouds held equal rivalry. The scooped valleys of Monte Rosa itself were magnificent, all gleaming in the bright sunlight—tossed and torn at intervals, and sending from their rents and walls the magical blue of the ice. Ponderous névés lay upon the mountains apparently motionless, but suggesting motion—sluggish, but indicating irresistible dynamic energy, which moved them slowly to their doom in the warmer valleys below. I thought of my position. It was the first time that a man had stood alone upon that wild peak; and were the imagination let loose amid the surrounding agencies, and permitted to dwell upon the perils which separated the climber from his kind, I daresay curious feelings might have been engendered. But I was prompt to quell all thoughts which might lessen my strength or interfere with the ealm application of it. Once, indeed, an accident made me shudder. While taking the cork from a bottle which is deposited on the top, and which contains the names of those who have ascended the mountain, my axe slipped out of my hand, and slid some thirty feet away from me. The thought of losing it made my flesh creep, for without it descent would be utterly impossible. I regained it, and looked upon it with an affection which might be bestowed upon a living thing, for it was literally my staff of life under the circumstances." At Christmas, 1859, Professor Tyndall went to Chamouni, and after a vast amount of labour reached the Montanvert, spending there two days and nights for the purpose of determining the winter motion of the glacier. He completely succeeded in the object which he had in view. His remarks on the beautiful crystals of which the snow was composed are much too interesting to be omitted. He writes ;- "Some time afterwards the air became quite still, and the snow

underwent a wonderful change. Frozen flowers, similar to those I had observed on Monte Rosa, fell in myriads. For a long time the flakes were wholly composed of these exquisite blossoms entangled together. On the surface of my woollen dress they were soft as down, while my coat was completely spangled with six-rayed stars. And thus prodigal Nature rained down beauty, and had done so here for ages unseen by man. . . . Whence these frozen blossoms? Why for zons wasted? The question reminds one of the poet's answer when asked whence was the Rhodora:—

"'Why wert thou there, O rival of the rose?

I never thought to ask, I never knew;

But in my simple ignorance snppose

The self-same Power that brought me there brought you.'"

As already indicated, the second or purely scientific portion of this book contains an exposition of the origin and phenomena of glaciers; and in the "Philosophical Transactions" for the year to which the book refers more complete investigations of isolated and contested points relative to the structure and motion of glaciers and to the physical properties of ice will be found.

In 1860 Professor Tyndall succeeded in reaching the then untrodden summit of the Weisshorn -a mountain which is generally admitted to be the noblest of the Alps. In a little book, entitled "Mountaineering in 1861," the Professor gives a very interesting account of this ascent, and poetical fancies of the most elevated description are frequently to be met with in the volume. What, for instance, can be finer than the following beautiful description of sunset?—"The sun is going, but not yet gone; while up the arch of the opposite heavens the moon, within one day of being full, is hastening to our aid. She finally appears behind the peak of the Rympfischhorn; the conc of the mountain being projected for a time as a triangle on the disc. Only for a moment, however; for the queenly orb sails aloft, clears the mountain, and bears splendidly away through the tinted sky. The motion was quite visible, and resembled that of a vast balloon. As the day approached its end, the scene assumed the most sublime aspect. All the lower portions of the mountains were deeply shaded, whilst the loftiest peaks, ranged upon a semi-circle, were fully exposed to the sinking sun. They seemed pyramids of solid fire, while here and there long stretches of crimson light drawn over the higher snowfields linked the glorified summits together. An intensely illuminated geranium flower seems to swim in its own colour, which apparently surrounds the petals like a layer, and defeats by its lustre any attempt of the eye to seize upon the sharp outline of the leaves. A similar effect was here observed upon the mountains. . . . They swam in splendour. . . . As the evening advanced, the castern heavens low down assumed a deep purple hue, above which, and blending with it by infinitesimal gradations, was a belt of red, and over this again zones of orange and violet. . . . After sunset the purple of the east changed to a deep neutral tint, and against the faded red which spread above it the sun-forsaken mountains laid their cold and ghastly heads. The ruddy colour vanished more and more; the stars strengthened in lustre, until finally the moon and they held undisputed possession of the blue-grey sky." If this description be not a prose poem, it would be difficult to say what is. Readers of the American poet Bryant may remember the following beautiful lines which occur in his "Thanatopsis," and which may appropriately be quoted as specially applicable to a man of Professor Tyndall's stamp

> "To him who, in the love of Nature, helds Communion with her visible forms, she speaks A various language,"

The Professor had in 1860 made an unsuccessful attempt to gain the summit of the Matterhorn; and in 1862 he made another attempt, which was also unsuccessful, a precipice requiring a halt to be made when 14,300 out of 14,800 feet had been accomplished. In 1868 he made a third attempt, and succeeded in making a passage over the mountain from Breuil to Zermatt. In April of the same year he ascended Vesuvius, in company with Sir John Lubbock, at a time when the mountain was in partial eruption, and managed, during a temporary lull in the discharges from the crater, to obtain a peep down the central tube of the volcano itself.

Professor Tyndall has published a number of scientific works, intended mainly to promote the love of science in England, and nearly all of them have been translated into most of the European languages. Amongst the most noticeable are the following, to some of which reference has already been made: - "The Glaciers of the Alps;" "Mountaineering in 1861;" "A Vacation Tour:" "Heat considered as a Mode of Motion;" "On Radiation—the 'Rede' Lecture, 1865;" "A Volume on Sound;" "Faraday as a Discoverer;" "A Volume on Light;" "Fragments of Science;" "Notes on Electricity;" "Notes on Light;" "Hours of Exercise on the Alps;" "The Forms of Water in Clouds and Rivers, Ice and Glaciers;" and "Address delivered before the British Association at Belfast, 1874." Necessarily the majority of his works are of a strictly scientific nature, and, as such, are chiefly interesting to those only who are intimate with the matters treated. Of these, "Heat as a Mode of Motion" is one of the best known. It was published in 1863, and has been very successful, the fifth edition having been issued in 1875. This book contains a familiar exposition of the Dynamical Theory of Heat, the greatest generalisation of this or any other age. It also contains clear abstracts of Professor Tyndall's researches on Radiant Heat; on the chemical reactions of light, and the bearing of some of the results on two of the greatest questions of Meteorology—the Blue of the Sky, and the Polarisation of its Light. "Contributions to Molecular Physics" is another work from the pen of Professor Tyndall, chiefly consisting of memoirs originally contributed to the "Philosophical Transactions" and other journals. One of these memoirs describes a ray-filter, an apparatus by means of which the luminous rays of the sun, the electric light, and the lime light, are separated from the rays which are non-luminous, combustion and vivid incandescence being effected at foci absolutely dark.

Mr. Spottiswoode, the treasurer of the Royal Society, thus refers to Professor Tyndall in his speech on the old and new laboratories of the Royal Institution:—"Of Faraday's successor, John Tyndall, I am greatly at a loss to speak. In this place his presence seems so near to us, his thoughts so subtle, his words—even when rung back to us from those busy cities far away on the other side of the Atlantic [the Professor was then in America]—so familiar and yet so stirring, that it behoves us that ours should be wary and few. Few men have brought so large a burthen and bulk of contribution to the common stock of knowledge; but still fewer have inspired in their hearers so strong a love, such ardent enthusiasm, for the subjects of his research."

Professor Tyndall published in 1871 a work entitled "Fragments of Science," and in this book many extremely interesting experiments are explained in a manner which can be understood by everybody. In the preface to the first edition, the author observes that his motive in writing the papers included in the book was mainly that which prompted the publication of his Royal Institution lectures—i.e., the desire to extend sympathy for science beyond the limits of the scientific public; and his desire has unquestionably been gratified, inasmuch as the very interesting volume in question is widely known amongst classes to whom pure science is a closed book.

In 1870, Professor Tyndall accompanied the Eclipse Expedition to Algeria, but, as the elements were unfavourable, the observations made were not successful. The Professor, however, seized this opportunity to make a series of observations on the colour of the sea. He took no less than nineteen specimens, commencing at Gibraltar Harbour and ending at Spithead. The difference in the colours and constitution of the several specimens were found to be very remarkable. The Professor gives a very lucid and interesting account of the cause of the various colours in his notes of the voyage.

Professor Tyndall's "Volume on Sound" has been very successful. Mr. John Fryer, of Shanghai, assisted by an intelligent Celestial, Hsü-chung-hu by name, translated the book into the Chinese language, and so highly was it thought of by the higher officials, that they ordered it to be published at the expense of the Government, and sold at cost price—about 1s. 6d. English money. In this volume the Professor gives a very interesting account of experiments with fog-signals at the South Foreland, and, in concluding his remarks on these life-saving articles, observes: "With the instruments now at our disposal wisely established along our coasts, I venture to think that the saving of property in ten years will be an exceedingly large multiple of the outlay necessary for the establishment of such signals. The saving of life appeals to the higher motives of humanity." Within a year after these words were printed, the Schiller was dashed to pieces on the Seilly rocks, and three hundred and thirty-three lives lost, besides an immense amount of specie. Had a powerful fog-signal been near at hand, in all human probability the Schiller would still be afloat, and the deplorable sacrifice of life avoided.

In response to a very pressing request signed by twenty-five of the principal literary and scientific men in that country, Professor Tyndall visited America in 1872. It is not possible here to give an account of the thirty-five lectures which he delivered in various parts of the United States, but suffice to say they were in every sense a success, and there can be little doubt but they have greatly tended to promote scientific education in the States. The following account is given of Professor Tyndall's débût before an American audience, in the hall of the Lowell Institute, Boston, which was densely crowded on the occasion: - "His reception was exceedingly warm and hearty. . . . With that happy faculty of speech which is his most charming trait, the Professor settled down immediately into the good opinion of his hearers, who cheered him so warmly that he intimated at once he felt quite at home. He told how, many years ago, he was besought by Mr. Lowell to come to America, and how, last year, the summons came with such force from many distinguished men that he could no longer refuse it. So here he was before a Boston audience. . . . His fascinated audience cheered him to the echo, and went away to hunt up new adjectives with which to praise him." The pecuniary gain to the lecturer was large, and might have been far larger. A surplus of thirteen thousand dollars remained after payment of all expenses. This sum Professor Tyndall generously placed in the hands of a committee before leaving for Europe, requesting that they would expend the interest in aid of students who devote themselves to original research. It has been so laid out that two students; each provided with one hundred pounds a year, will be enabled by the fund to pursue their studies either in Europe or America. In April, 1873, Professor Tyndall read a paper to the Royal Institution on "Some Observations on Niagara," when he remarked that there was but little accuracy in the estimates of the first observers of the cataract. The first printed allusion to Niagara was in the year 1585, and the Professor followed its history down to the present day. It is impossible here to give full details of these very interesting "Observations," as they extend to seventeen pages of the Royal Institution proceedings. But it may be as well to

note Professor Tyndall's prediction of the future lot of the famous Falls. He remarks: "At the rate of excavation assigned to it by Sir Charles Lyell, namely, one foot a-year, five thousand years or so will carry the Horseshoe Fall higher than Goat Island. As the gorge recedes, it will drain, as it has hitherto done, the banks right and left of it, thus leaving nearly a level terrace between Goat Island and the edge of the gorge. . . . The American Fall will then be transformed into a dry precipice, forming a simple continuation of the cliffy boundary of the river Niagara. At the place occupied by the Fall at this moment, we shall have the gorge enclosing a right-angle, a second 'whirlpool' being the consequence of this. To those who visit Niagara a few milleniums hence I leave the verification of this prediction. All that can be said is that, if the causes now in action continue to act, it will prove itself literally true."

On the occasion of the meeting of the British Association at Belfast in 1874, Professor Tyndall delivered an address, which was afterwards published with some few alterations and additions. This address gave rise to a wide variety of opinion as to the conclusions expressed in it. These, however, it is not our present purpose to discuss.

He married, on the 29th February, 1876, Louisa Charlotte, eldest daughter of Lord and Lady Claud Hamilton, the marriage ceremony being performed in Westminster Abbey by Dean Stanley.

In concluding the memoir of this most remarkable man, it is only necessary to add that he possesses to a very eminent degree the happy faculty of being able to make his most subtle ideas perfectly plain to others by the use of simple and at the same time striking language. It would be rash to venture upon an analysis of Dr. Tyndall's extraordinary abilities, for in attempting to deal with such a delicate and difficult subject failure could be the only result. As it was remarked in the commencement of this memoir, Professor Tyndall is not merely a man of science, but a man of many sciences; and it may certainly with truth be said, that his name will be handed down to posterity in company with that glorious array of natural philosophers of whom Newton is so grand a specimen.





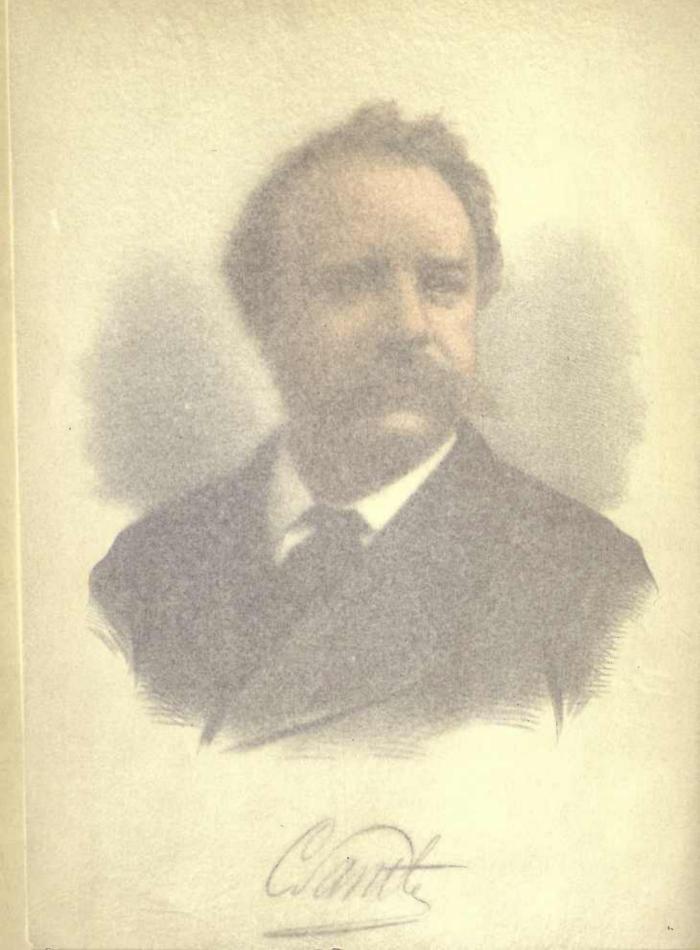
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CHARLES SANTLEY.

THE life of an artist where face and voice are familiar to thousands, whose power and influence over his generation are electly recognised—if not openly acknowledged—must be accessity be held to be "wholesome and nourishing reading." It is possible to show by what slow and gradual steps, in the face of difficulties and trials, eminence has been gained. The story table of every great musical artist is the same—steady perseverance and untiring industry. The circumstances by which he is surrounded are different, perhaps, to those of others, but the guiding principle is nearly always the same—a determination to overcome all obstacles as far as possible by unflinching plack and untiring hard work. These motives were a present throughout the whole of the struggling career of Charles Santley, as his story will show.

He was born in Liverpool on the 28th of February, 1834. His father at that time was an organist, and about the first thing he remembered was the delight he experienced in being allowed to sit on the organ-stool while his father was playing, watching the "cunning fingers gliding over the keys," and listening to the volume of sound which poured forth at the command of the player. An acquaintance with the art was almost insensibly acquired, and the power of reading grew with growing years, so that it became impossible in after-life to remember a time when the knowledge of music was not in his mind. As soon as he could talk he could sing, and sing well for a child. When his voice broke—which it did soon after he had reached his fourteenth year—he was apprenticed to a house of business, in which for five years he studied the mysteries of single and double entry, and so forth. His attention to business did not prevent an equal devotion to music. All his leisure time was spent in practice upon the fiddle, for he never dreamed of trying whether he had a voice.

In the year 1849, when the building of the New Philharmonic Hall was completed, it was proposed to celebrate the opening with a performance of music. The institution was one in which every Liverpool man felt an interest, and those who were musically inclined especially so. "Young Charlie Santley," as he was called, was one among the number who longed to do something to help to make the opening a proud day for his native town. He was scarcely sufficiently skilled to be engaged as a violinist among a troupe composed of veterans in the art, not only belonging to Liverpool, but also chosen from among the ranks of those who were considered the dignitaries of the profession—the London players. By this time, however, he had formed a new voice, and with a beating heart he presented himself for the separate trial which the committee had wisely ordered for all those who desired to join the chorus. There were to be no "dummies" in the choir: only the competent were to be selected. The trial of reading at sight young Santley made nothing of, for he could read anything and exactlying given as a test without trouble. His musical knowledge satisfying the



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examiners, and despite his youthful appearance—he had just passed his fifteenth year—his voice being approved of, he was assigned a place as a tenor singer in the chorus.

The delight of the young enthusiast cannot be described. His pride was gratified to such an extent that he seemed to be walking on air. No one more punctually or patiently attended the rehearsals, no one enjoyed them more keenly. The pleasure they brought was to him all too short. His ardour and eagerness were so great that he wondered at the impatience with which the older hands regarded the frequent repetitions. He could not understand the feeling which prompted many to wish the rehearsals shorter, or to regret that they should be considered at all necessary. He thought, with the brook of Tennyson, that "men might come, and men might go," but for his part he was prepared to "go on for ever." It is customary on all occasions when a musical celebrity is engaged to direct the actual performances, for the majority of the rehearsals to be taken by a local conductor during the weeks previous to the great event. This was the case on the present occasion. The conductor selected was Sir Julius (then Mr.) Benedict. Santley looked forward to his coming with some degree of excitement; and it is not difficult to understand how, when the famous composer at length arrived, his skill in directing the final rehearsals quickly gained the admiration of the enthusiastic chorus-singer. In the last chorus of one of the works selected—Rossini's "Stabat Mater"—there is a long, sudden pause—as musical readers will remember. At the general rehearsal, anxious to do well, but moved by an excess of zeal, our young tenor, in the chorus, burst out with an "Amen" in the wrong place, to the amusement of all, the astonishment of the conductor, and to his own confusion. Mr. Benedict, turning to the direction from whence the sound proceeded, said, with a quaint humour, not without a touch of sarcasm, "That young man is destined to distinguish himself"an accidental prophecy the truth of which he has since acknowledged.

Santley continued his connection with the Philharmonic Society for some time after this event. He also joined another musical association, called the "Società Armonica," for the sake of instrumental practice. Charles Hermann, the conductor, a distinguished musician, thought so well of the young fiddler that he appointed him principal of his second violins. He also frequently encouraged him to sing between the parts of the concerts given from time to time. The character and quality of Santley's voice had suffered a change, for he now sang bass. first song he sang in public was Benedict's "Rage, thou Angry Storm!" on which occasion his father accompanied him on the pianoforte. His sister, who at that time was engaged as vocalist at St. Anne's Roman Catholic Church at Edgehill, desired the young musician to compete for the vacant post of solo bass at the same church. As he never attempted anything without careful preparation, notwithstanding his knowledge of music, he set himself to work valiantly, and studied earnestly the trial-piece, which he sang with such truthful and pathetic expression as to win the coveted situation. His musical successes and occupations did not cause him to relax the diligence due to his business duties. Punctually at the time appointed, he was to be found at his post, discharging his daily tasks with patience and attention as though no other idea in the world occupied his mind; yet it can be imagined that an occasional burning thought absorbed him while apparently deep in the mysteries of "tare and tret," as to the correct phrasing of that violin passage in the overture to be played to-night, or as to the most effective method of delivering his voice in a certain part of the song he was to sing on Thursday next. He had made a great hit just before by his singing (for the first time to an orchestral accompaniment) at one of the concerts at which he played second violin. The song was the bass scena, "Haste, nor lose the fav'ring hour," from Weber's "Der Freischütz." The applause he gained rang

in his ears and thrilled his heart with pride, and he determined to be a singer. His term of apprenticeship was completed; he had served as book-keeper, and had become experienced in his business. One firm, however, with which he was connected, and which he had served so faithfully, suffered reverses in a disastrous panic, and ultimately dissolved. He was therefore free to make his own choice. Unfortunately, there was no conservatoire of music in England of sufficient value to induce the young student to confide the matter of his musical education or development to its professors; and as from time immemorial the Italian masters have been famous for the possession of special aptitude in training voices, Santley determined to go to Italy. Towards the end of the year 1855 he found himself at Milan, studying the Italian tongue and Italian singing with a patience and assiduity which only those who are resolved to make the best use of time know how to employ. Never an idle man, but trained up in habits of order and regularity, he found no difficulty in accommodating himself to his new situation, and in a short time he learned to speak Italian with all the perfection and purity considered to be the privilege of the Romans alone. In acquiring this distinction, patience, added to a quick, delicate, and appreciative car, and a natural talent for mimicry, aided him considerably. It was not, of course, solely to acquire a knowledge of the language, but also for the cultivation of his voice, that he went to Italy. For this purpose he placed himself as a pupil under Gaetano Nava, professor of singing at the "Conservatorio di Musica," in Milan. In addition to the admirable series of exercises which Nava had written for the development of the voice-which, by the way, were published in an English form by Santley a few years later—he was made to study the bass parts of Rossini's operas, the florid style in which they are written being well suited to the character of voice which he was supposed to possess.

Thanks to his own diligence, and the excellence of Nava's lessons, he was soon qualified to accept an engagement as a member of an operatic company, which was formed at Pavia for the Carnival Season of 1856-7. It is the custom in Italy and other foreign places to call the Carnival Season that which begins at the end of the year and continues until the approach of Three or four operas are selected, according to the capabilities of the company or the tide of popular taste in the place where they are to be given. One is played until it ceases to attract, then the second is produced, then the third, and so on. If time permits, the changes are again rung upon the same stock of operas, and the season concludes with one or more "masked balls." It was in such a company, organised under such conditions, that Santley made "his first appearance on any stage." He was engaged for the principal bass parts, at a fee of three hundred zwanzigers (worth about eightpence farthing each) for the whole season, which lasted about eight weeks. Reduced to English money, his salary was just about twenty-six shillings per week. This money was paid in the following manner:—The first instalment of a fourth of the whole sum for the engagement was paid to each artist upon arriving in the town where the performances were to take place; the second after the third public performance was given; the third when the season was half over; and the fourth at the termination of the engagement. The impresario who made the venture on this occasion was a man of small eapital, as many of his class are. He depended in a great measure upon the nightly returns to make his books right, and to provide him with funds to meet his obligations. These were not very extensive, if the sum paid to Santley as his primo basso cantante bore any proportion to the rest. However, the first portion was duly and punctually paid. Rehearsals were called and attended, and in due time the house opened. The opera selected for the opening night was "La Traviata," by Verdi. The part assigned to Santley was that of Il Dottore. The

chief of the work he has to do is to look grave and funereal, and to sing very little, although he is frequently seen upon the stage. In the last act there is one very difficult passage for him to deliver. Difficult, because the part is of that character called by musicians "chromatic," and the consequence is that it is very rarely given with that melodious accuracy which is desirable, but not at all times attainable. Whatever other merits there may have been in Santley's performance of this part, he can lay claim to one which places him high above all others who have attempted it—namely, that his intonation was just and true. In fact, he was the first and perhaps the only man who has sung the part in tune.

All went smoothly until after the third performance, when the baritone of the company -the singer "cast" for the part of Giorgio Germont-was taken ill. Santley was called upon, literally at a moment's notice, to take the part, which he sang as he never had sung part before, and to the astonishment of all, not excepting himself, made a most remarkable effect. His success had the effect of completely curing the sick baritone, who insisted upon resuming the part. "La Traviata" was soon withdrawn. It was followed by "Ernani," in which Santley had to resume his bass singing, taking the character of Silva in the opera. The "business," as it is technically called—that is to say, the amount of patronage bestowed upon the performances-had not been good; the manager, therefore, determined to make the grand coun by producing an entirely new opera, which had been already rehearsed. This was called "Lamberto Malatesta." It was written by Cesare Pontoglio, one of the students at the University of Pavia, the libretto being the work of another student. The grand coup succeeded admirably, and the house was crammed from floor to roof with an eager and expectant audience, chiefly composed of fellow-collegians of the author's. Neither the manner of telling the story nor the character of the music contented them. They were well satisfied with Santley's singing and his manly bearing as Il Duca di Firenze, but everything else was disappointing and displeasing. The principal tenor forgot his part, or did not know it, and smiled idiotically and helplessly at the audience. The prima donna was unable to make any effect, and all the other characters grew careless and indifferent. As the opera dragged "its weary length along" the audience became furious with impatience. At first they simply refrained from applauding, then they grew angry and began to hiss, then they imitated the several singers one after another, and then "cat-calls" were sounded.

The curtain fell soon after the third act commenced, and "Lamberto Malatesta" died a violent and premature death. This failure brought the season to an untimely end also, and the manager declared that he was unable to meet his engagements. It was a matter of great importance to all that money should be forthcoming, for many of the members of the company had no other resources but their salaries. The manager, according to the custom of his class, wished to repudiate his responsibility, and regarded with indifference any amount of inconvenience that might arise to the artists from the lack of money. Some were content to accept the condition of affairs, others racked their brains for a remedy. To institute legal proceedings, a certain amount of cash was necessary, and, moreover, advantage might be taken of their ignorance of the peculiarity of legal administration in those parts. In this strait Santley, with another member of the company, was deputed to speak to the mayor of the town, and to ask his advice. The mayor heard their story, noted their long faces, and told them that he feared they had no legal remedy, and they must be content to be losers. "However," said he, "come to me this evening at six o'clock, and I will tell you what I think." At that hour they went, and were told that they might make their minds easy, for he had arranged the whole business.

Further details he did not give. On the morrow, while it was yet early, every member of the eompany received a visit from the manager, who, armed with a bag of money and a pen and ink, paid all demands, scrupulously insisting upon a formal receipt being given in exchange. As the morning wore on, the anxiety and excitement of the manager seemed to increase, and as there were several members of the company yet to seek out and pay, and the day was nearing noon, his eagerness was almost painful. The last receipt was obtained at length, and he, almost breathless, with hurried and excited steps, rushed through the streets to the house of the mayor, ringing the gate-bell as the chimes of San Michel were sounding mezzogiorno.

The wilv manager had saved himself. It must be understood that at the time or season of the "Carnival," the performance of operas is very frequently a mere concession to custom, the great purpose of the whole business being the "masked balls," which conclude the season. However, this matter is rarely, if ever, mentioned in the prospectus, but is often treated as an afterthought. It is necessary to gain the requisite permission from the authorities of the town before the announcements can be made. These balls are the most profitable ventures that can be entered upon, the proceeds of one often paying for the losses of an entire season. The manager having had what was considered a very bad season, came to the mayor for leave to give five balls. As there is a legal time within which the application must be made, and as it had not been done up to the day the young artists laid their case before him, and as, moreover, that very day was the last allowed by law, the worthy old citizen had made up his mind not to give the requisite license when he was applied to, without being assured that all engagements had been met, and all obligations discharged. The manager probably delayed making his applieation until the members of his company were apparently satisfied with the condition of things, and could not, or would not, trouble him. His surprise, astonishment, and disgust may be imagined when he found he was compelled to pay all his artists in full before twelve o'clock at noon on the day following that on which he made his application.

After this, Santley returned to Milan, there either to continue his studies if he chose, or to do nothing if he were so compelled. He remained there all through the summer months, inactive but not idle; for one trained to habits of industry, and being, moreover, of busy disposition, could not sit still and do nought. He made applications on all sides for engagements, but none came. Thinking that if he extended the number of operas he knew by learning more he should meet with success, he worked hard for many hours during each day in increasing his répertoire. Again he made applications, only to be again disappointed. Managers "declined, with thanks," his services, though he offered them gratuitously. "He estimates himself at nothing: that is exactly his value," they thought, probably. In this condition of not only "masterly" but "masterless" inactivity he saw himself as the season approached when the engagements for the ensuing Carnival season were being made. His friends and acquaintances, fellow-labourers, or fellow-students, came to him joyfully, each showing him a scrittura, or engagement-paper, but none came to him. He was too honest to be envious. too manly to be malicious about the success of others, but he could not help wishing that his turn might come next. In this condition of suspense he remained, when one day an Englishman ealled upon him, having been directed by some family connections. The Englishman was H. F. Chorley, then musical critic of the Athenœum. Chorley had always a keen foresight in matters artistic, and often, when travelling on the Continent, as he was then doing, found out artists, and wrote burning words about them to England. He had no opportunity of hearing Santley in public, therefore he asked him to sing to him there and then, and made inquiries

as to the prospects and hopes of the young artist. The former were soon told; the latter took a longer time in telling. Chorley then gave him a letter to John Hullah, telling him it might be of service to him, but that all depended upon himself.

With the presentation of this letter to the eminent musician to whom it was addressed, commenced the artistic success of the young man whom it concerned. Mr. Hullah made an appointment to hear the "young bass," and being satisfied with the result, engaged him to sing the part of Adam in Haydn's oratorio, "The Creation," on November 18th, 1857.

From the accounts in the newspapers, Mr. Santley made a highly favourable impression. "He possesses," said one critic, "a powerful and sonorous voice, which (although quite young in his profession) he already knows how to employ skilfully, and to render subservient to the best purposes of musical expression. Mr. Santley is unquestionably a great acquisition to the London concert-room."

After this, engagements poured upon the new singer from all sides. He made several appearances at St. Martin's Hall from time to time, and it was at one of the performances there that he met the lady who afterwards became his wife, Miss Kemble—a member of a distinguished and illustrious family—to whom he was married in 1859.

In the January of the year following his débût (1858), he appeared in the same oratorio, "The Creation," at the Sacred Harmonie Society, with an equal amount of success. Five times in the course of that year he sang for the Society, and, as many similar bodies throughout the provinces judged of his talent according to the value afforded by the appreciation of his efforts by the London audiences, many lucrative offers were made to him, and his recognition was complete. At every place where he sang the public welcomed him with ardour and enthusiasm. His services were considered indispensable at the musical festival given at Leeds at the end of the year, and from that time forward his presence at each of the festivals, whether at Birmingham, Liverpool, Bristol, Gloucester, Woreester, or Hereford, was regarded as a necessary ingredient in securing success.

His first appearance in opera was during the season of 1859-60, at Covent Garden Theatre, "Dinorah," in English, being the work selected for his débût. The wonderful effect his singing had in that work is still fresh in the memory of many play-goers. Even the press praised his magnificent vocalisation, but either ignored his acting or declared that he could not act at all. Feeling that perhaps there might be some truth in this assertion, he worked earnestly day and night to improve himself; with what result, everybody now knows. In the next season (1860-61) he became a member of the English section of the opera company at Her Majesty's Theatre. The house was opened for the performance of a series of operas, English and Italian alternately. Madame Lemmens-Sherrington and Mr. Sims Reeves were two of the most prominent members of the former company, and Mdlle. Titiens and Signor Giuglini of the latter. The English portion of the season commenced with Macfarren's "Robin Hood," the libretto for which was furnished by John Oxenford. The principal characters were sustained by Sims Reeves, George Honey, J. G. Patey, Santley, and Madame Lemmens-Sherrington. The subject was a popular one, and, thanks to the efforts of the artists concerned in its interpretation, the opera enjoyed a comparatively long run. The brilliancy of Santley's voice seems to have called forth more admiration than his acting, though some recognised in it a measure of improvement. position as a singer off the stage was now fully established, and every concert at which he sang was duly recorded, and its merits fully assessed. All who heard him were pleased and proud of him. His honest, manly, and frank demeanour, his punctual fulfilment of every engagement

undertaken by him, his thorough English appearance and manner, were sufficient to win him new friends and to strengthen old ties. Even those who were unwilling at first to give up their prejudices, gradually yielded them, and if in accordance with their line of conduct they felt that the time was now come when they should make no further struggle to maintain a semblance of consistency in ignoring his good points, and hopelessly condemning what they considered to be his weaknesses, they did so by detailing the one, and suppressing all notice of the other. The tide of public opinion was too strong to battle against any longer. No more hard, bitter words were to offend the artist's eye and heart, no more thorns were to sting the hand stretched forth to gather roses. The remainder of his career was to be watched and noted, for he had fairly won the admiration of the public.

At Covent Garden he sang in English opera in the season of 1861-62, and a few months later he appeared for two nights in "Il Trovatore" on the same stage, at the instance of Mr. Gye, singing in Italian opera for the first time since his adventure at Pavia, not as Signor or Monsieur, but as plain "Mr. Santley." He bore an honoured and an honourable name, and, with a thorough hatred of affectation and sham, disdained all solicitations to assimilate his "style and title" in accordance with the usual operatic custom. In the midst of a galaxy of operatic stars, belonging to almost every known country on the habitable globe, and called by one admitted general denomination, the name of "Mr. Santley," as it stood in the bills announcing the popular artist, in whatever character he temporarily assumed, appeared as a simple protest against the absurd and fantastic fashion of people who, born and bred and speaking English, assume foreign appellations with a freedom that points out the extent to which they are ashamed of the land from whence "they derived their birth and infant nurture." In successive seasons at Her Majesty's Opera, at Drury Lane, at Covent Garden, or at the Lyceum Theatre—wherever Italian opera found a temporary or permanent home, and whenever Santley was engaged as a member of the company—through evil report and good report, he maintained his determination of never being ashamed of his own name. No matter what might be the talents of those with whom he was associated, he could still hold his own against the best, whatever their nationalities or advantages. Even in Barcelona, whither he went for the opera seasons of 1864-65 and 1865-66, and when musical England had to regret his loss, and to long for his speedy return, as there was no one who could amply fill his place, it was the same story. "His superior ability and natural gifts, his honest manliness, enabled him to outshine his compeers." In the season of the ccalition of Messrs. Gye and Mapleson at Covent Garden, in 1869, he was one of the most attractive among the artists, and an extraordinary favourite with the audience. His singing had always been the subject of esteem, more or less openly expressed; his acting now had so far improved that it became the theme of great admiration. It was held to be as grand in conception and execution as that of many of the greater lights on the purely histrionic stage. His performance in Wagner's "Flying Dutchman" ("L'Olandese dannato"), produced at Drury Lane when Mr. Wood assumed the directorship of an operatic season in 1870, was described as a fine piece of tragic acting; and not to follow instances step by step, or to give details of the many parts he has filled, it will be sufficient to say that in none is he not above mediocrity, and in many he is almost matchless.

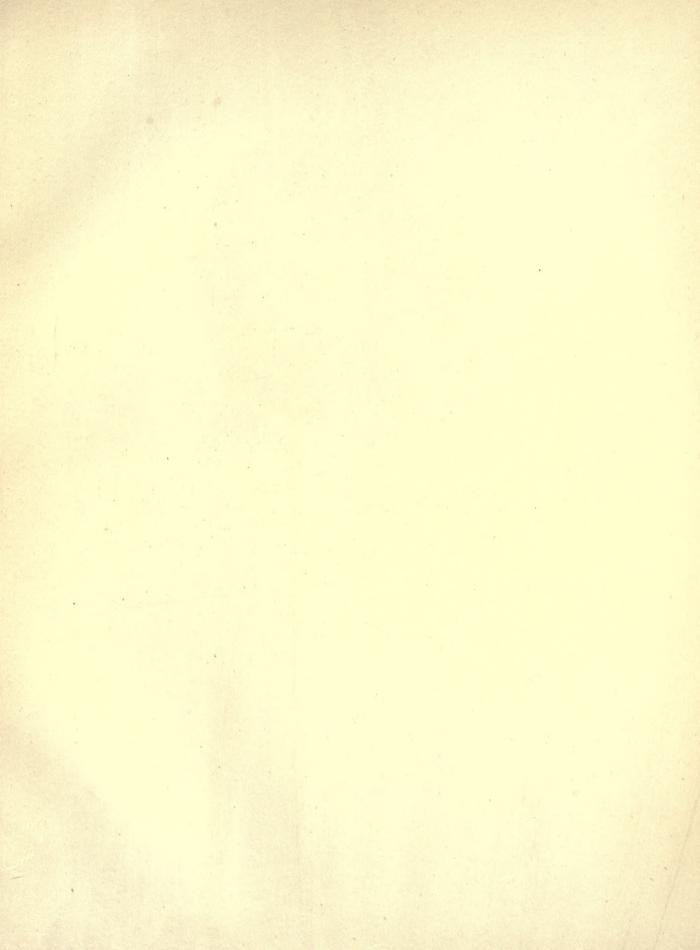
In 1871 he made a short tour in America, increasing and extending his artistic reputation. Since that date his services have been lost to the Italian stage in England—a loss which is the more felt, inasmuch as he ceased to sing as soon as he had attained the high position arising from the full acknowledgment of his versatility and power.

After a short season of opera in English at the Gaiety Theatre, in which he performed, among other works, in Auber's "Fra Diavolo," in Hérold's "Zampa," and in Lortzing's "Peter the Shipwright," with splendid success, he appeared to have retired from the stage altogether, so few were his appearances. In concerts and oratorios, in London and elsewhere, he still delighted his hearers; but it was feared that his dramatic ability was never more to give pleasure to the public. But when Mr. Carl Rosa announced a series of performances of opera in English at the Princess's Theatre towards the close of the year 1875, Santley's name was prominent in the list of the company, and the fear vanished. His able expositions of the several characters he was then called upon to perform, many of them for the first time, will not have been forgotten by those who were present. None who saw him can forget his drollery as "Figaro," his hardy good-nature as "Michel the water-carrier," or his tender pathos as "Martin, the porter," to say nothing of the various other emotions influencing the representations of other parts performed by him.

In oratorio, his singing is distinctly remarkable; and his natural gifts, aided by a fine appreciation and a thoroughly cultivated method, help to ensure the most perfect possible interpretation of the music undertaken. His performance of Mendelssohn's "Elijah," for example, is a satisfying study over which the philosopher might find the ne to moralise, to the same extent, and in as high terms, as the musician might speak of the mere execution of the music.

There is no effeminacy in any of the work done by Santley. It is all manly, honest, straightforward, and to the point. It is because of these qualifications, forming a thoroughly genuine English style and bearing, that his presence always inspires a welcome greeting from every honest English heart.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Fhotograph by the London Stereoscopic Company.]

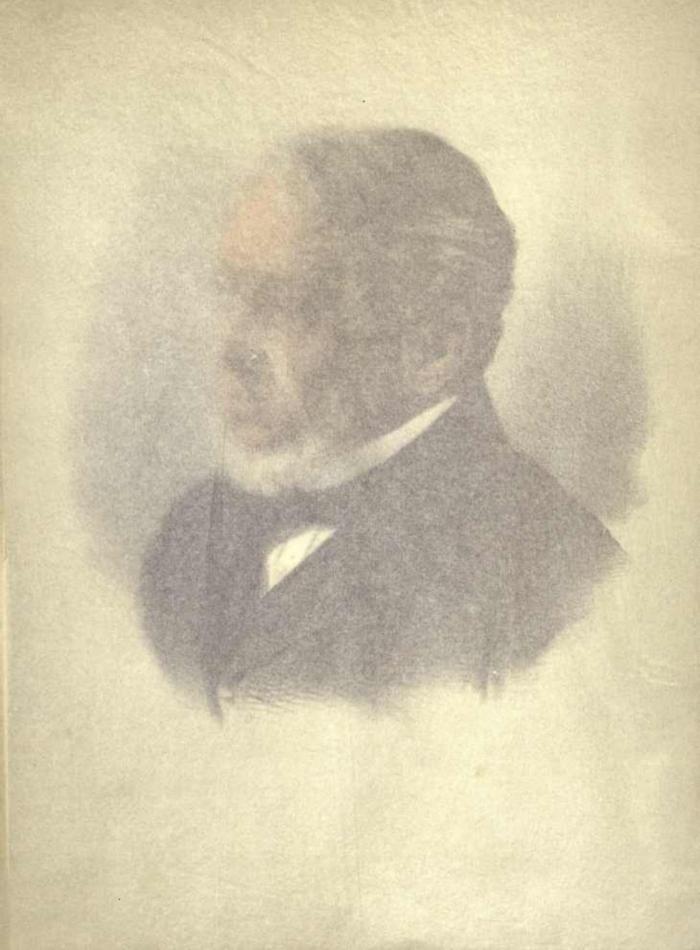




BARON LIONEL NATHAN DE ROTHSCHILD.

PERHAPS and precept as the house of Rothschild. Large fortunes have, we know, been made to equally and beginness and gigantic forms of almost proportionate dimensions built up and beginness and gigantic forms of almost proportionate dimensions built up to be a subsequently dissipated to the descendants of their formsess, and begun business by sweeping the descendants of their formsess, and the firms so laboriously the incapacity of their inheritors. It has not been a beautifully advanced, extending its area of operations and increasing its fortunes, until it now stands unrivalled as the most colossal and influential firm that commerce coupled with finance has ever known, and Stat magna nominis umbra might well be its motto.

The original founder of the firm was Meyer Anselm Rothschild-without the noble nymic "de"-who was born at Frankfort-on-the-Maine in the year 1743. The outlock of the early days of this scion of the house was anything but propitious, as his parents were goes and of the therised Jewish race, who were treated as cavalierly on the Captingst at test period as they were in Pairwood during the Middle Ages. A humble dwelling to the Indengance mused the inflation and his parents dying when he was only eleven years of age, some benevolest persons of his received time to a preparatory Jewish school; whence, having received there the last grants of knowledge, he was sent adrift in the world to earn his own living. The best positive he could citizen for some time was a menial office in the house of a teader. Here he should be the results; but the intern commercial genius of Rothestald and and add its way. His world results restorably to take to the study of the coins of different matter, and, touching himself, he would't became expression with the relative values of parama surface and design exchanges. A bankop of Hanner was delle with his master, becoming sugments with his aptitude for however, your hour a sent in the other. In the house of the new completes, he hearted tripped to expressing the position, was an experience and they as the beautiful transition to the transition of the property of the prop having assumptions of the agency of released to the easier day, Parallely and of the sa a banker, is the property of the period of the property that the contract of t business, while manufact representative to the got the expensioner, proposition, and appropria ment in the continue random when the profiler, many machine of book only gifter. Many various with reference to have the reserved of the best was care. In conseque, bridge best received when wards Electory of Manie and Company of the country him his banker. It was taken to the property above to the trace of the same the patron's funds during the transport of the same to the transport of the same to the



BARON LIONEL NATHAN DE ROTHSCHILD.

PERHAPS no family—of modern times at least—has so pointedly illustrated the great advantage of the Vis muta precept as the house of Rothschild. Large fortunes have, we know, been made from equally small beginnings, and gigantic firms of almost proportionate dimensions built up by nearly destitute lads "of poor but honest parents," who have come to London with the typical half-crown or lucky sixpence in their ragged pockets, and begun business by sweeping out shops and running on errands. But these fortunes have often been subsequently dissipated by the ill-judged extravagance of the descendants of their founders, and the firms so laboriously created have lapsed into insignificance through the ineapacity of their inheritors. It has not been so, however, with the house of Rothschild. Instead of retrogressing with successive generations, it has steadily advanced, extending its area of operations and increasing its fortunes, until it now stands unrivalled as the most colossal and influential firm that commerce coupled with finance has ever known, and Stat magna nominis umbra might well be its motto.

The original founder of the firm was Meyer Anselm Rothschild—without the noble patronymic "de"—who was born at Frankfort-on-the-Maine in the year 1743. The outlook of the early days of this scion of the house was anything but propitious, as his parents were poor and of the despised Jewish race, who were treated as cavalierly on the Continent at that period as they were in England during the Middle Ages. A humble dwelling in the Judengasse nursed his infancy; and his parents dying when he was only eleven years of age, some benevolent persons of his race sent him to a preparatory Jewish school; whence, having received there the bare germs of knowledge, he was sent adrift in the world to earn his own living. The best position he could obtain for some time was a menial office in the house of a trader. Here he slaved on for months; but the inborn commercial genius of Rothschild soon worked its way. His mind seemed naturally to take to the study of the coins of different nations, and, teaching himself, he quickly became conversant with the relative values of various indices and foreign exchanges. A banker of Hanover who dealt with his master, becoming impressed with his aptitude for business, gave him a seat in his office. At the house of his new employer, he devoted himself to improving his position, and succeeded so well that in the year 1780, when he was in his thirty-seventh year, having accumulated some little capital, he returned to his native city, Frankfort, and set up as a banker, or money-changer, on his own account. Rothschild now began to rise in his adopted business, which seemed to come naturally to him; and the shrewdness, punctuality, and uprightness in his dealings having been remarked, many matters of State and public importance with reference to loans were entrusted to his cautious care. In particular, William, Landgrave (afterwards Elector) of Hesse—the lineal ancestor of the consort of our own Princess Alice—made In that office he won general esteem by the way in which he saved his patron's funds during the invasion of Germany by the French. The landgrave never forgot

this service, allowing Rothschild to use his money whenever he required capital for investment in public securities. Thus he laid the foundation of a great firm; and at his death, in 1812, left his sons a large fortune and a European fame. Of Meyer Rothschild's five sons—the patriarch was blessed with a goodly quiver—Anselm settled at Frankfort, carrying on the original house there, as it is still carried on in the Jewish quarter of the city; Solomon became the head of a branch at Vienna; Nathan Meyer, the third son, came to London; Charles opened business at Naples; and James took the Paris house. All these remained united by the astute advice of their father; and by judiciously working into each other's hands, managed to take a leading part in the financial affairs of the Continent.

The principal rise in the Rothschilds' fortunes dates more particularly from the outbreak of the war in Spain in 1808, when the resources of Nathan Meyer Rothschild, who, it may perhaps be recollected, was the representative of the English branch of the house, were called into play by Government for making the necessary remittances to the British army in the Peninsula. Nathan had first come to England at the commencement of the century, and had acted as his father's agent in the purchase of Manchester goods for the Continent. Shortly afterwards, he had-through his father-large sums entrusted to him by the Elector of Hesse and other German princes, for safety, Bonaparte's supremacy causing dismay beyond the Rhine; and these funds he employed with such great judgment that his already ample means rapidly increased, until he was able to command the market. His financial transactions pervaded the whole western world; and among other enterprises, he supplied with loans the great coalition powers by whom Bonaparte was overthrown. He was consulted by the leading men of every nation on almost every undertaking and speculation. His brothers looked to his judgment regarding all matters of a pecuniary character; and on his father's death he was acknowledged the head of the firm. He may be said to have been the first introducer of foreign loans into this country; for though such securities had been dealt in before, yet the dividends being payable abroad, and subject to a constant fluctuation in the rate of exchange, had made them too inconvenient an investment for the multitude. It is related that, such was M. Rothschild's keen-sightedness and good management, that not one of those with whom he ever entered into contracts ever failed to carry out his engagements. His loan contracts, however, were not always successful in the first instance; for example, he is said to have lost half a million by Lord Benley's loans, or funding of Exchequer Bills. The vast resources at his command enabled him to bear this and many other heavy losses which would have sufficed to sink a firm of less gigantic means. To such an extent did he carry on his loan operations, and so great was his reputation on the Continent, that it was constantly a matter of rivalry between different States as to which should obtain his co-operation.

A fixed rule of this worthy descendant of his father, the founder of the house, was never to enter into any money contracts with Spain or the Spanish settlements in South America, in which he undoubtedly evinced more prudence than many capitalists of late years. His reason was that during the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella the whole of the Jews were summarily and in the harshest manner banished from Spain. Many attempts have been made at various times, extending down to the present day, to obtain a reversal of the decree; but as yet without success—though, like his father, who would never take an active part in these efforts, Baron Lionel has up to the present shown no personal interest in this work. Mr. Nathan Rothschild also always refused to connect himself with the various joint-stock companies of the day—still, we believe, a rule of the firm—with the single exception of the Alliance Insurance Company, in the promotion of which he took a leading part. He was distinguished alike for

his accuracy and correctness in matters of business, and his liberality of dealing with all who were brought into the sphere of his monetary negotiations; and was second to none in his private and personal charities, which he distributed on a large scale, more especially amongst the poor of his own religion. He had some oddities—selecting in particular one special pillar in the Royal Exchange, which no one else dared to appropriate, and against which he was to be seen leaning every day. He cared little about dignities, and although when present at the conference of Aix-la-Chapelle, amidst the most distinguished men in Europe, he was regarded as one with an equal voice in the disposal of the kingdoms of the Continent, he did not in any way obtrude himself; while, although he was advanced by letters imperial in 1822 to the dignity of a Baron of the Austrian Empire, he never assumed the title, being more proud of his high commercial and untitled name. He died at Frankfort-on-the-Maine, in 1836, whither he had gone for a short visit. He had by his wife, the daughter of Mr. Levi Cohen, a London merchant, three daughters and four sons, the eldest of the latter, who succeeded to the title on his father's death, being the subject of our present biographical sketch.

Baron Lionel Nathan de Rothschild was born in November, 1808. He was educated abroad privately, and at an early age entered the firm of which he became the distinguished head. The system of management first commenced by his father was admirably calculated to develop the abilities which he possessed. It was a rule with Baron Nathan, which has never been since broken, that all important correspondence and all delicate financial transactions should be conducted either by himself or by his sons; and to this salutary regulation is probably due no small part of the success of this great firm. With the facilities so given to him for acquiring an insight into complicated commercial transactions, and with abilities far beyond the common run, it soon became evident that Baron Lionel was fitted in every respect to guide the course of the fine vessel which his predecessors had previously commanded. Combining in an extraordinary degree the special talents with which his father and grandfather were endowed, Baron Lionel has extended the great banking-house even further than it had already reached in its comprehensive area; so that, although other great firms have arisen mushroom-like, the great banking-house of the Messrs. Rothschild has never lost that distinct position it once attained.

The Baron continues the line of business in which the house was formerly engaged, never mixing himself up in bubble companies, nor embarking in undertakings of a purely speculative character; and the important transaction of the firm in 1876—viz., the advancement of the four millions required by the English Government for the purchase of the Suez Canal shares from the Khedive, by which the Rothschilds cleared nearly £100,000, shows that the house has not lost its old prestige, but is as capable of investing in colossal enterprises as ever. As another instance of the enormous extent of their financial transactions, it may be mentioned that some years ago the firm purchased at a favourable opportunity, and when prices were extremely low, the whole of the quicksilver mines in South America. Since that time they have enjoyed a monopoly of the quicksilver trade, and for many years the Baron himself personally attended to its details. That the speculation has been a very profitable one, no one can doubt; but that such a monopoly should have remained in the hands of the firm for nearly a decade without complaint on the part of the manufacturers speaks volumes for the fairness and absence of avarice with which it is conducted. The Baron married, when in his seventh lustrum, Charlotte, the daughter of Baron Charles Rothschild, of Frankfort, and by her he has had three sons and two daughters. His eldest son, Nathaniel Meyer de Rothschild, who was born in 1840, has inherited the baronetcy conferred on his uncle, Sir Anthony de Rothschild, in 1846,

and for some years has represented Aylesbury in the House of Commons. His elder daughter. Leonora, married Baron Alphonse de Rothschild, and the younger, Evelina, was married in the spring of 1869 to her cousin, Baron Ferdinand, the second son of Baron Anselm, of Vienna, in the presence of an assembly which comprised many of the prominent members of England's nobility. The pleasure of the parents in the happiness of their children did not, however, long continue. To the deep regret of all who knew her, the baroness died in giving birth to her first child. Providence denying to her husband even the poor consolation of a child who in years to come should reproduce for him the features of the wife he lost so early. Even under this sudden and terrible blow the generous instincts of the Rothschilds would not be denied, and the Evelina Hospital, in Southwark (for children)—founded by Baron Ferdinand—stands as a noble memorial of the baroness. But not only in times of bereavement does the charity of the Rothschilds show itself. It is as boundless as their wealth—never ending, trammelled neither by nationalities nor creeds. As might be expected, institutions connected with their own race, of whatever kind, ever receive the most generous support. But the Baron's name may also always be seen appended to nearly every subscription list which has a praiseworthy object in view, in addition to his many private and generally unknown benevolences. The baroness, who is specially the almoner of the family—although it need scarcely be said that the same spirit equally animates her children-is known to spend one-tenth of her income in private charity. She has an enormous number of protégés—said to number nearly two thousand -over whose interests and welfare she watches with a motherly care. Many a struggling student or artist has she quietly aided, and many successful members of all the professions now gratefully acknowledge the substantial help, and, what was even more valuable, the warm encouragement which they received from the baroness in their early days. The Baron, among other matters, takes much interest in metropolitan improvements, and is always ready to lend the authority of his name to every scheme for the amelioration of the condition of the lower classes, the sweeping away of the rookeries of the City, and the embellishment of that metropolis to which his firm largely owes the magnitude of its fortunes. The Baron's town residence in Piccadilly is a magnificent mansion, fitted up with every modern luxury and improvement. Adjoining Apsley House, the nation's gift to the conquering Wellington, which it dwarfs into insignificance, the building rises in palatial grandeur some six storeys in height. It is related that before it was erected the Baron wished to purchase the adjoining house, belonging to Sir Edmund Antrobus, and throw it into the space of his own, but his brother banker would not, like Esau, sell his birthright, although requested to name his own terms. The worthy baronet, indeed, was so fired with rivalry, that he determined that Baron Rothschild's mansion should not overtop his, and actually caused an additional storey to be added to his residence some time after it was completed, in order to bring it above the level of the Baron's. Any one passing along Piccadilly by the side of the Green Park may notice this peculiarity. The Baron's country residence is at Gunnersbury Park, near Ealing, in Middlesexa retired, home-like structure, where the capitalist loves to seclude himself from the bustle of the world.

One of the most interesting features in Baron Rothschild's public life was his admission to Parliament; and as the circumstances connected with this event involved many constitutional questions held at the time to be of the deepest importance, it will not be out of place to mention them here. It may be remembered that after the Act of Parliament was passed which abolished the various drawbacks and hindrances placed in the way, by the old rules and regulations

of Roman Catholics who desired to serve their country, a scheme was ventilated by the leading members of the House of Commons to do away likewise with the disabilities of the Jews and other seets, who, while being quite as worthy citizens as the members of the Protestant faith, were ineapacitated by scruples of conscience from taking the Oath of Abjuration requiring them to pledge themselves "on the true faith of a Christian" before being recognised in the Legislature as bont fide representatives of the people. Owing, however, to the determined opposition of the Tory party, which was then in a strong majority both in the Lords and Commous, the attempt fell to the ground, the main objection to any measure of relief to the ostracised creeds being that, as a prominent member of the Conservative party put it, once the Jews were admitted to Parliament, "reform"—that bête noire of the Tories forty years ago-would immediately ensue. Consequently the measure was crushed; but although the disabilities of the Jews were notremoved, reform was achieved, and at the same time was removed one of the ancient barriers of custom which stood in the way of the amelioration of their condition. For some years subsequently the question remained passive, and it was not until Baron Rothschild was returned for the first time to the House of Commons, in the month of August, 1847, as one of the members for the City of London, that it was again agitated. After some discussion of the matter, Earl (then Lord John) Russell moved, on the 16th of December of the same year, "that the House do resolve itself into a committee to consider the propriety of the removal of the civil and political disabilities now affecting Her Majesty's Jewish subjects." The noble lord, in his explanatory address, stated that the question concerned the rights, political and religious, of a community numbering over forty thousand souls, who were renowned as good and industrious citizens, and who were neither disposed nor indeed able to excite a clamour in the country in their own behalf, to agitate the public mind in their favour, or to threaten the integrity of the empire with subversion if their demands were not complied with. The committee having reported favourably on the matter, a Bill was brought in early in the next year, embodying the principle sought. Its supporters pointed out that although special arguments were used, that the Jews sneered at Christianity, and were thus unworthy of being members of the House, still that Gibbon, who was a rank Deist, and sneered at Christians and Christianity, trying to abase the faith, was admitted to Parliament, and although he took the Oath of Abjuration, he openly declared his unbelief in the doctrines it involved. Hume also, an equally irreligious man, took the oath and his seat, and was afterwards deemed of sufficient worth to be accredited to the court of France as the Ambassador for England in the reign of George III. And yet his works were calculated to undermine Christianity more than any work written by a Jew. Besides, the special clause to which the believers in the Mosaie dispensation principally objected, "on the true faith of a Christian," was only inserted in the Oath of Abjuration in the reign of James I., another formula having previously been used. In addition to these points, which had considerable weight, it was argued that as the Jews already possessed the franchise, and "sent the makers of Acts of Parliament to Parliament"—a far more important consideration than being simply representatives of the electors -it was rather weak to object to their being members of the House. After a prolonged debate, in which Mr. Disraeli and Mr. Gladstone spoke ably, and voted on the same side in favour of the Bill, it successfully passed through the Commons by a fair majority, to be rejected, however, in the House of Lords, on the 25th of May, 1848, by thirty-five votes.

But the matter was not yet settled. In the following year Barou Rothschild was again elected one of the members for the City of London by some seven thousand electors, after resigning his seat in consequence of the unfavourable fate of the Jewish Disabilities Bill in the Lords, and this

brought affairs once more to a crisis, there being considerable discontent amongst the leading electors of London, who determined that their representative should be admitted to the House of Commons, and urged on Parliamentary interference to that end. Lord John Russell being still a consenting party, having indeed pledged himself, as another of the members for the City, to see the question brought, if possible, to a favourable issue, a fresh Bill was introduced into the House, and was read for the first time on the 30th of May, 1850. The Ministry showing some disinclination to press the Bill, a large meeting of the citizens of the City of London was held a month or two afterwards, when it was resolved that the Baron, who had hitherto refrained from intruding himself at St. Stephen's until his claim to his seat was legitimately acknowledged, should go down to the House and have the question as to his right of admittance finally decided. In compliance, therefore, with this expression of opinion from his constituents, Baron Rothschild accordingly presented himself at the table of the House of Commons, on the 26th of July, 1850, to be sworn as one of the members for the City of London. Being asked by the clerk whether he wished to take the Protestant or the Roman Catholic oath, he replied, "I desire to be sworn on the Old Testament." Thereupon, the clerk having stated the matter to the Speaker, the right honourable gentleman directed the Baron to withdraw, which he did. On this a fierce discussion arose, opened by Sir Robert Inglis, and at its termination the Attorney-General proposed that the Baron should be heard at the bar of the House, either by himself, his counsel, or agent, in respect of his claims to sit and vote in Parliament on taking the oaths on the Old Testament. This proposition was again debated with considerable heat, and after being adjourned several times, it was ultimately resolved, on the 5th of August, by a majority of seventy-four (166 to 92), "that the Baron Lionel de Rothschild is not entitled to sit in this House, or to vote in this House during any debate, until he shall take the Oath of Abjuration in the form appointed by law."

In accordance with a promise made by the Government when the question was decided as above to alter the law so as to admit of the standing order of the House being moved, a new Abjuration Oath (Jews) Bill was put before Parliament early in April, 1851. This was rapidly passed through the Commons; and being sent up to the Lords, was, like the former measure to the same effect, rejected on its second reading on the 17th of July, in the same year. A few months after, the matter being still vehemently urged in and out of the House, the Lords refused to hear counsel in behalf of the Baron and of Sir David Salamons who had a short time previously been elected member for Greenwich, and, like Baron Rothschild, refused his seat.

Owing to the complications arising with Russia, and the incidence of war, the matter was set aside for a time, but the liberal spirit which actuated the promoters of the Jewish Disabilities Bill was not to be quenched. Baron Rothschild was elected for the third time in May, 1852, and the question cropped up once more in the spring of 1853, another Oaths Bill for effecting the liberation of the Jews from their civil and religious disabilities being introduced and carried by an increased majority in the House of Commons. Like its predecessors, it was rejected in the Lords in the month of April, but under better auspices, the majority against the second reading being much less than on the former occasions.

The question was now coming to a crisis. In March, 1857, Baron Rothschild was elected for the fourth time one of the members for the City of London by the determined freemen of the metropolis, and their unswerving fidelity to their representative was certain of reward. It was urged by Lord John Russell during the session that the repeated persistency with which the electors of London urged the claims of their member seriously deserved the consideration of

the House. Another Bill was therefore prepared and carried, but only to be again thrown out of the Lords. This was the last struggle of the Opposition. The matter having now become so serious that it could no longer be overlooked by the Upper Chamber, a conference was proposed between the Lords and Commons as to the disagreements of the former with the proposed new Abjuration Oaths Bill. Finally a compromise was effected, the Lords saving their dignity by rejecting the Bill of the Commons, and passing a measure of their own with the same enactments for the relief of the Jews. This Bill received the Royal assent on the 23rd July, 1858, and on Monday, the 26th of the same month, Baron Rothschild came to the table of the House of Commons; and being presented with the prescribed form of oath, 21 and 22 Victoria, cap. 48, passed the same session—the oath embodied in the Bill just referred to—said, according to the provision mentioned therein, "Sir, I beg to state that, being a person professing the Jewish religion, I entertain a conscientious objection to take the oath which, by an Act passed in the present session, has been substituted for the oaths of supremacy, allegiance, and abjuration, in the form therein required." The proceedings which resulted on the former appearance of the Baron at the table of the House were now repeated, the clerl- informing the Speaker of what the new member had stated, and that gentleman requesting the Baron to withdraw. In accordance with the formula required by the new Act, Lord John Russell moved a resolution in agreement with its provisions, allowing the words "on the true faith of a Christian" to be omitted from the text of the Oath of Abjuration. The resolution being carried without opposition, Baron Rothsehild was once more admitted to the House. Having gone up to the table he was sworn ou the Old Testament, subscribed to the oath, and at length took his seat in the House of Commons, after contesting the honour for nearly a decade.

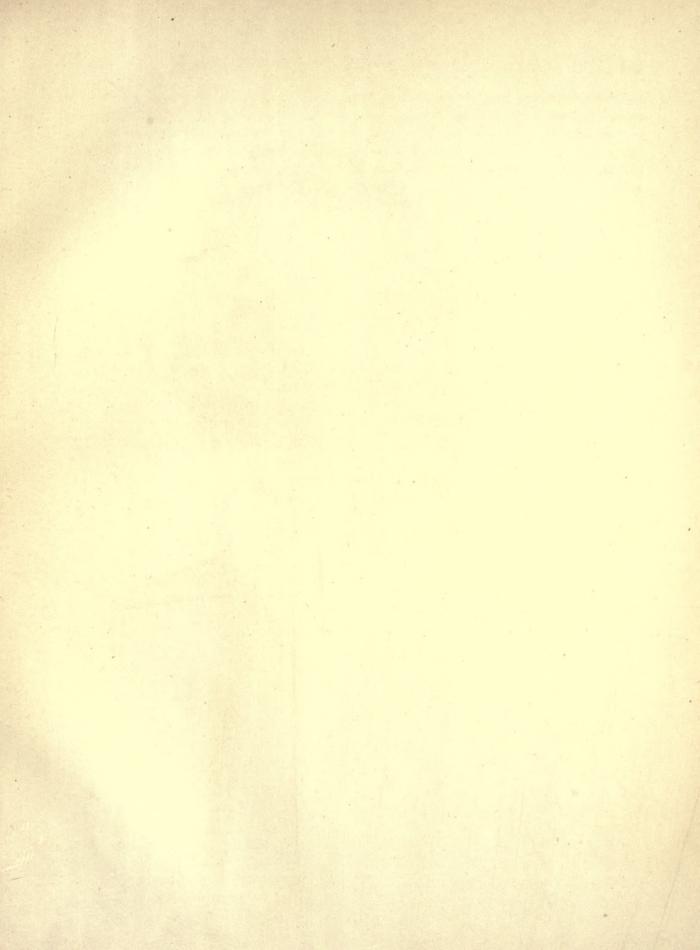
Although the Baron continued a member until the year 1874, when he lost his seat by the general election brought about by Mr. Gladstone, he has never asserted himself, but contented his ambition by giving a quiet vote. The only occasion in which Hansard mentions his having spoken was in a question he put to the then Chancellor of the Exchequer, shortly after his admission to Parliament, as to whether the Government proposed any rebate in respect to stamps when the imposition of the paper duty was abolished. Beyond this instance his name is unrecorded in the annals of the House of Commons. During his entire political career he invariably voted for the Liberal party.

The family have largely identified themselves with matters English, in society and elsewhere, and the name is even associated with that much coveted honour, "The Blue Riband of the Turf"—a Rothschild having not only carried off the Derby, but the Oaks as well. In the fashionable world no gathering or fête is complete without some representative of the great house. In France, where no family is so popular as that of the Rothschilds, society was set agog in 1876 by the marriage of Mdlle. Bettina de Rothschild with her cousin of the Vienna branch. The Paris house of the firm was sacked during the Revolution of 1848, but the French Assembly decreed its restoration at the public expense; and during the Commune, when no rich man's residence was respected, the Rothschilds' was spared. "Touch not that building!" cried the Communist chiefs to their men—"it belongs to the Rothschilds, and they have done too much good to the poor and all of us." A general cheer arose at these words, and every national guardsman saluted at Rothschilds' door as he passed it.

In conclusion, it may be mentioned that the all-useful Vapereau, in his "Dictionnaire des Contemporains," suggests that the year 1855 was singularly fatal to the Rothschild family, which then lost, in the course of only a few months, its most ancient members. Charles, the head of

the Neapolitan house, died on the 10th of March, 1855; Solomon, of the Vienna branch, died whilst on a visit to Paris, on the 27th of July in the same year; Anselm, the eldest of old Meyer's five sons, and the head of the establishment at Frankfort, died there in December, also in 1855. The mother of all these, the widow of Meyer, the original founder of the family, nearly reached her hundredth birthday, seeing her grandsons old men around her, and not dying until the year 1849.

[The Portrait prefixed to this Memoir is copied, by permission, from a Photograph by O. G. Rejlander, Victoria Street, London]





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THE RIGHT HON. LORD ELCHO, M.P.

"LIBERAL (V) SERVATIVE" has been element described as an independent politician on whom no dependence can be glasse. This fare mornings of the House of Commons. appear with this leavest discounties in the pages district to Parliamentary statistics, and to the content party, or tourne a pain of gride the relative experience, as if the bearer of the specialization did any spirit transit which was so the provided biss of his conduct. But all, the respite I has been just at the collective designation and orbitally preponderates over the more quarifying adjective, and a member who is catified L. C. is supposed to view the majority of questions through spectacles which throw a decidedly Conservative has over the object. In most cases, names compounded in such a manner are essentially rediculous, and convey about the same impression to the public mind as if a clergyman were to be labelled as an Evangelical High-Churchman. Lord Elcho, however, is, and always has been, a conscientious and consistent politician: his party fully understands that it may depend upon his vote on all ordinary occasions in support of Conservative measures, but that contingencies may arise from time to time when his sentiments will not coincide with those which are entertained by the party at large; and his appearance in the lobby with the Opposition, as his astraining from voting at all, is viewed as no political desertion, but merely as an instance of attendation various and redependent conduct. Lord Elcho has been said to have suggested for himself the appropriate designation of "moderate Liberal;" but if the votes recorded by his probable during any given master were to be analysed, it would certainly be found that the remother for Haddingtonshire in not very prote to assert his Liberalism.

The High then Francis Wemyss Charters in the object on at the eighth Earl of Wemyss and Minim and brain the courtesy title of Borne Mann. Jen was been in 1818, his mother being the factor described of the assemble for it is a factor to the same discreted at Fice, and Christchase, the of the second at It A is notice deathy sizes which (in 1841) he embarked in political life by heavening margine for that Chancelle-mines. Lord Elcho continued to represent the resolution of the the way 1945 what he accepted the Chiltern Hundreds, owing to his having course to the transferior than, as a present to the Mobert Peel's free-trade policy on the corn asserted, in the state of the containing the last to represent a constituency which had elected him to to the beginning before his views had become altered on a question that was than appropriate on associationals. The mass subnequently (in 1847) returned for Haddingtonshire, and he has continued to represent that county. Lord Elebo's views on the vexed question of the Mayounde there he got give satisfaction to some of his constituents at the time of the agitation as that which is 1851, but he was returned unopposed at the general election in the following year. We explained his conduct as follows. That he had given his cordial support to Sir Robert Year after in 1845 he respond an increased grant to the College of Maynooth, and that he did as irreads that measure involved no new principle, that an



THE RIGHT HON. LORD ELCHO, M.P.

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"LIBERAL-CONSERVATIVE" has been cleverly described as an independent politician on whom no dependence can be placed. But few members of the House of Commons appear with this hybrid designation in the pages devoted to Parliamentary statistics, and to the general public it conveys a sort of milk-and-watery impression, as if the bearer of the qualification did not quite know which way to determine the political bias of his conduct. But still, the weight of the latter part of the collective designation undoubtedly preponderates over the mere qualifying adjective, and a member who is entitled L. C. is supposed to view the majority of questions through spectacles which throw a decidedly Conservative hue over the object. In most cases, names compounded in such a manner are essentially ridiculous, and convey about the same impression to the public mind as if a clergyman were to be labelled as an Evangelical High-Churchman. Lord Elcho, however, is, and always has been, a conscientious and consistent politician: his party fully understands that it may depend upon his vote on all ordinary occasions in support of Conservative measures, but that contingencies may arise from time to time when his sentiments will not coincide with those which are entertained by the party at large; and his appearance in the lobby with the Opposition, or his refraining from voting at all, is viewed as no political desertion, but merely as an instance of straightforwardness and independent conduct. Lord Elcho has been said to have suggested for himself the appropriate designation of "moderate Liberal;" but if the votes recorded by his lordship during any given session were to be analysed, it would certainly be found that the member for Haddingtonshire is not very prone to assert his Liberalism.

The Right Hon. Francis Wemyss Charteris is the eldest son of the eighth Earl of Wemyss and March, and bears the courtesy title of Baron Elcho. He was born in 1818, his mother being the fourth daughter of the second Earl of Lucan. He was educated at Eton, and Christchurch, Oxford, taking his degree as B.A. in 1840; shortly after which (in 1841) he embarked in political life by becoming member for East Gloucestershire. Lord Elcho continued to represent that constituency till the year 1846, when he accepted the Chiltern Hundreds, owing to his having come to the conclusion that, as a convert to Sir Robert Peel's free-trade policy on the corn question, he could not conscientiously continue to represent a constituency which had elected him to be its representative before his views had become altered on a question that was then uppermost in men's minds. He was subsequently (in 1847) returned for Haddingtonshire, and he has continued to represent that county. Lord Eleho's views on the vexed question of the Maynooth Grant did not give satisfaction to some of his constituents at the time of the agitation on that subject in 1851, but he was returned unopposed at the general election in the following year. He explained his conduct as follows:—That he had given his cordial support to Sir Robert Peel when in 1845 he proposed an increased grant to the College of Maynooth, and that he did so because that measure involved no new principle, that an

of Volunteer corps. The skill and experience of a practised rifle-shot were displayed in the way in which his lordship alluded to the essentials necessary to becoming an expert rifleman, such as the position and pull; and he stated that too much importance could not be attached to correct His most practical remarks, perhaps, were directed towards the subject judging of distance. of dress, and it is to be wished that the various corps in the country had paid more attention in this respect to the suggestions which were offered. Lord Elcho expressly stated that the so-called invisible green was a very bad colour indeed in these days of arms of precision, and was only outstripped in the statistics of mortality by that colour in which the British linesman is compelled to clothe his expensive person, the hits per cent. having been calculated as follows: Red, 12; rifle-green, 7; brown, 6; Austrian or bluish grey, 5. He spoke most decidedly in favour of knickerbockers as the costume to be adopted, maintaining that the kilt, although allowing equal freedom of play to the limbs, would not prove so suitable in getting through the hedges in skirmishing. Laced boots, leggings, an absence of braces, and a grey tunic, light or Austrian in its shade, with suitable facings according to taste, were advocated by his lordship. The remarks which he made, that rifle-shooting cannot be extemporised, that rifle-drill should be thoroughly mastered before rifle-practice, and that too much time should not be devoted to company-drill, remain as true and as worthy of attention as at the time when they were uttered.

The result of the meeting was that the corps was duly enrolled, and became one of the most efficient and popular of the many excellent Volunteer regiments raised in the metropolis. Lord Elcho's suggestions were favourably received, and he was appointed major, and subsequently lieutenant-colonel commandant of the London Scottish Rifle Volunteers.

But it is not only in connection with the Volunteer movement that Lord Elcho has shown a lively interest in military matters, and proved that his opinion is entitled to high consideration. Our military organisation in general, and the unprepared state of the country to meet any unexpected drain on its means of offence and defence, have for years occupied his strictest' attention, and called into action his warmest zeal. It is seldom that a discussion or debate arises in the House of Commons on any question connected with the army without Lord Elcho giving practical information or offering well-judged advice on the subject. It is precisely because Lord Elcho turns his attention to all branches of the service, and studies the interworking and combining of the one with the other, that he is of such value as a Volunteer officer. It is a frequent mistake for officers to regard their own particular branch of their profession from a one-sided point of view, and to neglect to acquaint themselves with the details of co-operative action. No overstrained notion of the value of Volunteers marks Lord Elcho's views on military subjects, but his knowledge of all the various elements which compose a thoroughly organised army is accurate and profound, and his views are unbiased in treating them individually. Of course, it is not his lordship's province to deal with questions of strategy: his object is to send an efficiently equipped and organised army into the field, and to provide a sufficient defence for the country if our islands were themselves attacked. His conviction of the inadequacy of the British army as now constituted to meet the various calls which may be made upon it, owing to the vast extension of the empire, as well as his knowledge of the faults in our system of recruiting, and his perception of the altered state of things arising from change in the manner and cost of living and in the political relationship of foreign States, have led him to be always sounding the note of warning. This is never done to awaken a panic in the nation, or to induce a larger military force to be raised than is required for the proper defence of the interests of Great Britain and its dependencies, but to secure an efficiency which does not actually exist, and to bring about an improvement and consolidation of the forces which we already possess. Perhaps the best summary of Lord Eleho's views on this question is comprised in a book which was published in 1871, containing several letters written by his lordship during the latter part of the previous year. Though published some years ago, a perusal of these letters is recommended to all those who are interested in the condition of the army, as the majority of the remarks apply, unfortunately, with equal force at the present day. Lord Elcho dwells emphatically on that point towards which public attention has been tardily directed, viz., the necessity of a modified employment of the ballot in recruiting for the Militia. Mr. Gathorne Hardy has offered new inducements to enlistment, but there seems little doubt but that the country must eventually be led to adopt some better expedient if our empire is to be maintained in its vigour and integrity. time Lord Eleho's letters were written, the sudden and unexpected collapse of France directed public attention towards the deficiency of our own military status; but the nation seems to have relapsed to a great extent into that supincuess of contentment from which it was temporarily aroused by the astounding success of the Prussian arms. There are not now any signs abroad of that trop de zèle which Lord Elcho feared at that time, and it is hoped that it is not by any national disaster that the country will be rudely awakened to a sense of its past shortcomings. Lord Elcho did not advocate a hasty and needless change in our military system, but reform, rightly applied, to that which is now in existence. He says: "By a strict adherence to our own military system, and by rightly applying the principles we find there, we may, I believe, make our nation powerful and unassailable." The main features of this system he describes as being :-

- (1) A paid Regular Army voluntarily enlisted for offensive service abroad and at home.
- (2) A paid Militia compulsorily raised for defensive service at home, and capable also of volunteering for foreign or colonial service.
- (3) An unpaid Volunteer force for home defence.

His lordship continues: "Here we find the principles of voluntary and compulsory service so combined that the military service shall press as lightly as possible on the people. The Militia, it is true, are not now raised by conscription; but the ballot is only held in abeyance by an annual Suspension Act, which proves that the basis of our system of home defence is conscription. The ballot, or the chance selection of a few, is, in fact, an alleviation of the general liability to personal service in home defence." Lord Elcho then points out the various advantages which would be obtained by the re-introduction of the ballot into the Militia. It would facilitate the increase of the Army Militia Reserve at any time, whilst it would ensure a supply of efficient Militia officers, who would accept commissions in that body rather than have to run the risk of being obliged to serve as privates, as they would have to do, if drawn, provided the law of substitutes were disallowed; and last, and not least, it would ensure the efficiency of the Volunteer force, to which numbers of efficient members would flock in order to avoid the chance of compulsory service. "We should then get that hold upon the well-to-do otiose class which patriotism alone, unfortunately, now fails to obtain. It must not, however, be supposed, when we read of 400,000 Volunteers being raised in 1803 from a population of less than one-half of our present number. that patriotism was greater then than now. The ballot was in force at that time, Volunteers being exempted. Heretofore, when the ballot for the general Militia has been in force, substitutes have been allowed; the consequence being that the loose, loafing, enlisting portion of the population has had the command of the man-market, being bid for on the one hand by the Government, which in 1809 gave £40 bounty and levy-money, and on the other hand being sought after

by the quiet wealthy citizen, who, when struck by the ballot, has been known to give as high as £100 for a substitute." The letters conclude with a general summary, in which attention is forcibly directed towards some of the main deficiencies in our military organisation: want of powder and other warlike stores; the skeleton state to which many of the infantry and cavalry regiments are reduced; the unsatisfactory state of the home fortifications; and the shortcomings as regards the organisation of the Reserve forces. "The fault of all this," says his lordship, "does not lie with any particular Minister-it lies deeper: all War Ministers, and all Governments, in turn, have equally shrunk from grappling efficiently with the army question. They have wilfully shut their eyes to our real state, and have striven by smooth statements to make things pleasant to the public, and, above all, to the House of Commons, upon the members of which assembly officials cast the blame of their own departmental laches, saying that in time of peace the needful supply of war material or stringent measures for the supply of soldiers would be refused. And yet how unjust are such statements! For no Minister ever met with a refusal who, on his Ministerial responsibility, asked for supplies as being necessary for the honour and safety of the country." Lord Elcho's remarks on the purchase question were very apposite, though, as may be presumed, they advocated a different line from that subsequently adopted in consequence of the vote of the House; for he denounced the wasteful and uncalled-for expenditure on Purchase Abolition, and was fully aware of the fact that the British soldier, like the Prussian, likes to be led and commanded by officers whom he feels to be superior to himself in social rank as well as in intellectual culture. His lordship's more detailed views are given in the Appendix, several items in which are well worthy of consideration.

But whilst the Volunteer movement and questions of army organisation are the topics in connection with which Lord Eleho has appeared most frequently and most prominently before the public, there are many other matters of social and general interest with which his name is Among the brochures which figure in the catalogue of the British Museum as attributable to the pen of the Hon. F. W. Charteris, is one which deals with the question of medical reform, written at the time when the subject provoked such long and angry discussion in the year 1857. Lord Elcho supported the amended Select Committee Bill, after it had been abandoned by Mr. Headlam, the member for Newcastle. Much misunderstanding prevailed throughout the country on the subject, and Lord Elcho was charged with wishing to obstruct medical reform and to supersede Mr. Headlam's Bill. Both gentlemen had sat on the Select Committee which deliberated on the question; and Lord Elcho maintained that Mr. Headlam had in his new Bill altered the conclusions of that Committee, which he himself wished to maintain. Feeling ran very high in the country regarding the question, as it was proposed to grant great power to the medical corporations, to the prejudice of the faculties in the Universities. An outcry arose that the member for Haddingtonshire was entirely influenced by Scotch interests, simply from the fact that the Scotch Universities granted a proportionately larger number of diplomas in medicine than the English or Irish. This unjustified aspersion of Seotehmen Lord Elcho characterised as an inuendo on "the palæontological tortoise that always faced its steps southwards."

Lord Elcho's address to the miners of Mid-Lothian—afterwards published as a pamphlet—is a very pleasing instance of his kindliness of feeling, of his deep-rooted interest in the working man, and of his sincerity of conduct in viewing a question in connection with which he encountered considerable misunderstanding and even opprobrium. This was the vexata questio of the mutual relationship of employés and employed. In his address, Lord Elcho alluded

as follows to the misstatements which had been put into circulation respecting him: "I am said to be the opponent of reform, and hostile to the admission of the working man to the Nothing can be more untrue. All I have maintained is that changes in our ancient constitution should be rarely made: the working man is entitled to fair share in the suffrage, but existing interests must be protected. This session, the task before us is to effect a satisfactory settlement of reform by broadening the basis of the constitution, without admitting the eventual rule of a numerical majority, with which true liberty cannot co-exist. My earnest endeavour will be to aid in this work, and I hope you will not refuse me that confidence in politics which you have so fully shown in social questions affecting the well-being of the working man." Lord Elcho said that he took the deepest interest in the question, and viewed their request for his attendance not in the light of an invitation, but of a summons. Alluding to the unfair manner in which he had been treated, he said that his windows had been twice broken by the scum and refuse of a London mob, and that he had been denounced from a Glasgow platform as unworthy of a seat in the House of Commons. (Apropos to the breaking of Lord Elcho's windows, it may be interesting to mention that his house was "the cave" where Mr. Lowe, the Duke of Westminster-then Lord Grosvenor-and the other "Adullamites" chiefly met, Lord Elcho having been the practical founder of the party.) Lord Elcho maintained that the conclusions arrived at by the committee of which he was chairman, and which had sat in the course of the preceding year, were that the law was harsh and one-sided, because dereliction of duty was held to be criminal in the case of the servant, and of the servant only. His lordship dwelt on the question of accidents in mines, and asserted that a commission ought to be granted on the subject, as the insufficiency of ventilation and the inadequacy of inspection were obvious to all those who had a practical acquaintance with the matter. His remarks on the head of combinations and strikes are especially worthy of notice, seeing how much might be gained in the present day by the adoption of his advice. Arbitration is to be regarded as the remedy, whilst the true principles of political economy are to be duly considered by both parties in the dispute. There is no doubt that this antagonism of capital and labour must act very prejudicially to the best interests of the country; as Lord Elcho expressed himself: "You have in this country at the present moment the classes who live by labour and the classes who employ labour in two hostile armies combined against each other. I would hope yet to live to see the day when, instead of this, we shall see capital and labour united in one great union of interest and of feeling, and standing shoulder to shoulder, whilst they manfully struggle against that foreign competition which daily becomes more formidable, and wrestles with us now for the custom of the world." The meeting received the suggestions and remarks with much favour, and the spokesman of the association said that Lord Elcho had been greatly misrepresented by various statements which had appeared regarding his course of action towards the working man. He asserted that he was essentially the working man's friend; far more so than Mr. Bright, who had opposed the ten hours' factory legislation; and that his concurrence with all legitimate remittance of labour was evidenced by the opinion which he had pronounced in regard to the Saturday half-holiday movement.

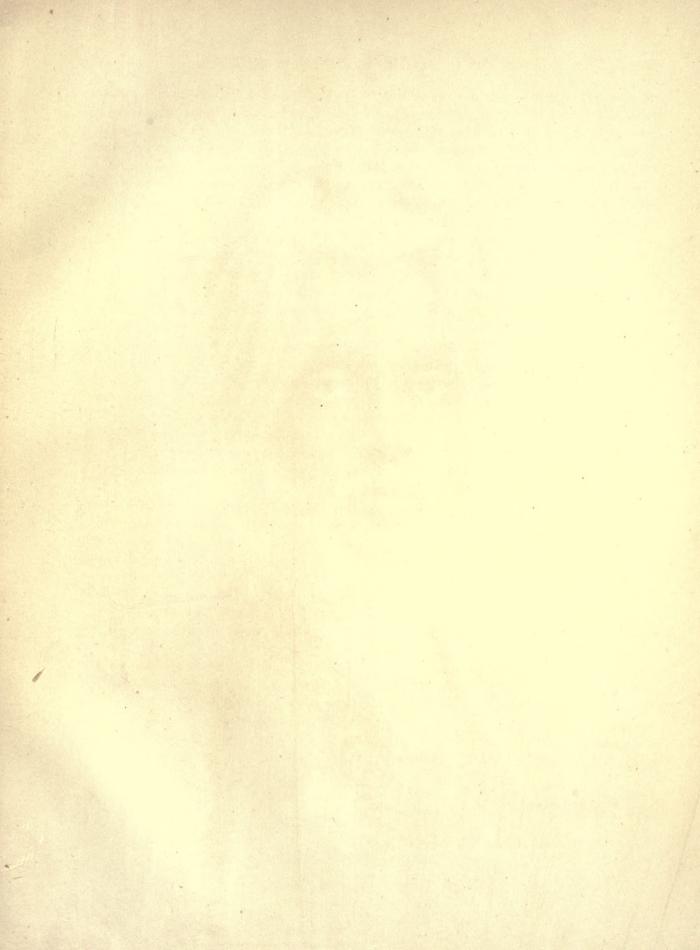
The other subject on which Lord Elcho's sentiments are expressed in print is the Scotch Law of Hypothec, that mysterious question which causes such searchings of heart to members imperfectly conversant with its intricacies. Fortunately, the pamphlet has a second title—"Anglice, The Law of Distress," and gives a clear insight into the matter. His lordship opposed its abolition, and said that agriculture in Scotland had flourished to an exceptional extent during its prevalence, and that the Act of 1867 ought to be fairly tried before proceeding to further

measures. He denied that the preferential right of the landlord raised rents, or made him careless in the selection of his tenants; that it made it a difficult matter for the tenant to get monetary accommodation in ease of pressure; that it was not unjust to other ereditors; and finally called attention to the fact that the landlord invests his money at a rate which barely brings him in three per cent.

We cannot, perhaps, more appropriately close our sketch of Lord Elcho's public eareer than by giving an extract from a hustings speech, in which his lordship summarises his political principles—delivered at the general election in 1868, when opposed by Lord William Hay:— "Seeking no object of personal ambition, and only wishing to serve you honestly and faithfully, I decline to bow the knee to any Baal, or to worship in high places. There is an attempt being made, I say, to erush out all independence—to return members who are pledged not only to a party, but to a man—who are pledged delegates, I might say, only to Mr. Gladstone. An attempt is being made to set up, as it were, a political papacy, of which Mr. Gladstone is to be the first pope. Now, I cannot do this. I am not prepared, if returned to Parliament, and Mr. Gladstone were to say, pointing to a certain cloud, 'Do you see yonder cloud that is almost in the shape of a camel?' I am not prepared to say, 'By the Mass! an' 'tis like a camel indeed.' And if Mr. Gladstone were then further to say, 'Methinks 'tis like a weasel,' I am not prepared to say, 'It is like a weasel.' And if further Mr. Gladstone were to say, 'Or like a whale,' I am not prepared to reply, 'Very like a whale.' I cannot play Polonius to Mr. Gladstone's Hamlet. I cannot follow him as a leader, because Hamlet in his most fitful and uncertain mood was not so fitful and so uncertain a leader as Mr. Gladstone has proved himself and will prove himself to be. I therefore go to Parliament a free, independent Liberal-Conservative, if you do me the honour of sending me there."

In his private life, Lord Eleho displays no mean æsthetic attainments, and his thorough acquaintance with art subjects led to his being appointed Vice-president of the International Fine Arts Jury at the Paris Exhibition in 1855, when he was made a Commander of the Legion of Honour by the Emperor Napoleon. Subsequently he was selected to supervise the expenditure of the fund granted by Parliament for the purchase of works of art at the Paris Exhibition of 1867, but being unable to leave England at the time, the task was afterwards accepted by Lord Foley. The collection which his lordship has got together, and which he lent for public inspection to the South Kensington Museum, is, when the sum paid for its purchase is taken into consideration, a sure proof of his discrimination as well as of his taste.

In 1843 his lordship married Lady Anne Frederica Anson, second daughter of the first Earl of Liehfield. Nine children have been born to them, of whom three—the eldest son, the Hon. Francis Charteris, the second, Arthur, an infant, and the third, Lieutenant the Hon. Alfred Walter Charteris—are deceased. The latter died in 1874, on board the Simoom troop-ship; during the voyage home from Ashantee, where he had served as aide-de-eamp to Sir Garnet Wolseley, and been conspicuously engaged in the eampaign.





Duly Singh

THE MAHARAJAH DULEEP SINGH.

FIGURE are perhaps few things more significant of that innate force which is one of the I which characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon race than the desire which arises in the minds of wen of outlying anything to copy English ways and adapt themselves to English uses. We an Angle with a Brope some years back, which passed away not altogether without wire a last a ment behind it. One of the later forms of Anglo-mania has been Asiatic. The people of suren baying for many centuries held themselves aloof from the world of outer barbarian, love at length awakened to some idea of the strength and beauty of English institutions and English manners, and are now rapidly exchanging their old forms of civilisation, gramped and dwarfed by long solitude, for the freer and higher shapes of liberty and of constitution which England has to offer. The people of Hindostan, though less suddenly and swiftly affected than the Japanese, have been following in their footsteps, and there are now many hundreds of cases in which the intercourse between Great Britain and its Indian possesssions has brought about a personal change in sentiment and in hopes which may almost be called incredible. The Eastern and Western forms of thought are thoroughly apart, and that they should thus meet and mingle cannot readily cease to be a matter for surprise. There is, perhaps, no instance of this acceptance of the British form of thought and life and culture so striking as that exhibited by His Highness the Maharajah Dulcep Singh, who has so identified himself with English life that he has long since taken pretty much the same position as that occupied by the typical English gentleman. He is thoroughly grafted on the English stock. He has assimilated himself not only to the outer forms, but to many if not to most of our inner ways of feeling. He occupies something of the position of a pioneer in this respect, and his action has without doubt helped to pave the way for the passing over to the higher levels of Western life of many Eastern princes.

There were, of course, many influences at work in bringing about this change from hereditary thought, and one of the most potent of them all was that exerted by his father, the famous Runjeet Singh, Maharajah of the Punjauh, who in the times of the East India Company was always known as a strategy friend and ally of the English. It may be assumed with some safety, despite the alarment experts which are occasionally circulated with respect to the condition of mind of the Indian empers of our Crown, that the wisest and clearest-headed of Indian potentates have long since comprised the fact that an enormous benefit must ultimately accrue to India from British rule. There are still some haughty and independent spirits, who rebel against the inevitable, and who quarrel in their own hearts with destiny, but the better class of leaders and the more influential potentates have learned that the light bond of England hable their petty principalities and sovereignties together, and that without British rule their



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country would inevitably fall back into a political chaos, as hopeless as that from which it has only within this century been rescued.

The Maharajah of the Punjaub, or the Lion of Lahore, as he was also called-a man of wonderful foresight and sagacity-recognised this position from the first, and, like a wise and patriotic leader, took the side of that power which he foresaw was at once the stronger and the more beneficial in its action. Shortly before the birth of the subject of this biography. which took place in September, 1838, the Home Government, then under the conduct of Sir Robert Peel, found itself called upon to exercise strong measures in respect to India. were grave troubles on the north-west frontier. Russia had obtained a footing in Persia, a fact made manifest by the appointment of the Czar as the guardian of the succession to the Persian throne. The young Shah prized the Russian alliance more highly than the British, as Mr. Ellis, our envoy, discovered on his arrival in Persia in 1835. At this date the British frontier was determined by the great sandy desert extending from the jungles on the Gorra, in the hill states of Ghurwal, to the sea. Beyond this desert to the north-west lies the Punjaub, with its five great rivers, which give to the country its name. All the great conquerors who have penetrated to India from the Caspian, the Black Sea, or the Mediterranean, have had first to pass through the region south of Independent Tartary, which has through all known time served as the highway between eastern and western Asia. There is, indeed, a proverb that no one can be King of Hindostan without being first Lord of Caboul. There were endless quarrels among the rulers of different cities and territories in Caboul, and it seemed at the time as if everything were conspiring to bring Russia, Persia, and the rulers of Afghanistan, for once united against a common foe, in armed alliance against us. Disturbances came, and Licutenant Pittinger's memorable defence of Herat had proved successful before Lord Auckland's proclamation of war against the Ameer Dost Mohammed was issued. Some time before, the hereditary ruler of the country had been deposed by his people, and the Ameer, an able brave man, set up in The ex-monarch, Shah-Soojah-ool-Moolk, fled, and was at this time living at his stead. Loodianah, under the protection of, and receiving a pension from, the British Government. Anxious that a friendly ruler should govern Caboul and Candahar, it was determined to oust Dost Mohammed, and restore the ancient line. Runjeet Singh had taken Peshawur from the Afghans, and knowing that the Ameer was anxious to recover it, he readily joined in a treaty signed at Lahore, by the terms of which he should co-operate with the British and Shah Soojah for the objects of all three. The new Afghan ruler was to enter upon his territory surrounded by his own troops, and supported by the British, who should retire when the restoration was completed. At the end of November, 1838, Runjeet Singh and Lord Auckland met at Ferozepore, the nearest of our settlements to the Punjaub. The meeting and greeting of the two commanders was a very splendid sight, and it was believed that in the condition of affairs a very easy task lay before the British. That belief was not justified by the sequel. The army entered Afghanistan in two lines, by the Khyber and Bolan passes, and the journey was both difficult and tedious. The siege and storming of Ghuznee were, however, admirably managed. The son of Dost Mohammed was taken prisoner, and the Amcer himself, on hearing the news, evacuated Caboul, and retreated to the mountains. Shah Soojah was placed on the throne, protected by a British army of occupation under General Elphinstone-with Sir W. Macnaghten and Sir A. Burnes as his political advisers. The British authorities now: supposed that all was done, but by-and-by came that terrible breaking in upon peaceful hopes which many of our readers will still remember as the opening of the Sikh war. The Punjaub

fell into a hopeless state of disturbance. Runjeet Singh, "our faithful and highly-valued ally," as the proclamation styled him, had died on the 27th of June, 1839, and the two next heirs were snatched away in the course of a few months. His son, the Maharajah Kurruck Singh, was believed to have been poisoned, and his son and successor, Noor Mahal Singh, while returning from his father's funeral, was struck by a beam which fell from a gateway upon his elephant, and died in a few hours, at the age of twenty-two. The disputes about the succession which now took place between the widow of the elder deceased Rajah and an illegitimate son of Runjeet Singh let loose all the passions of the turbulent Sikhs; and the Punjaub could no longer be regarded as a safe and friendly country. Even after the rebellion, which began with the murder of Sir William Macnaghten and Sir Alexander Burnes and the nameless atrocities of the soldiery of Afghanistan, had been thoroughly quelled, and victory had again and again crowned the British banners, the Punjaub remained in a terrible condition. In 1843, one of the writers for the public press surveying the position, remarked: "In the space of less than five years since the death of Runjeet Singh, there have been four sovereigns or Maharajahs of the Punjaub, Kurruck Singh, Noor Mahal Singh, Shere Singh, and the present boy-ruler Duleep Singh, and the kingdom which that able chieftain consolidated with so much care has fallen a prey to intestine convulsions and anarchy which threaten its instant dissolution, and may render British interference necessary, however anxious we may be to avoid a meddling policy, since it is impossible that we can remain unconcerned spectators of such scenes of violence in a country adjoining our own dominion in the north-west of India."

This foreboding was amply fulfilled. On the 14th of February, 1846, after disturbances again and again renewed and quelled, and again renewed, the Governor-General issued a proelamation from the Foreign Department at Kursoor. He stated that the Sikh army had been expelled from the left bank of the River Sutlej, having been defeated in every action, with the loss of more than 220 pieces of artillery. The British army had crossed the river, and had entered the Punjaub. The Governor-General announced by his proclamation that this measure had been adopted by the Government of India in accordance with the intentions expressed in the proclamation of the previous December, when it was stated that it had become necessary effectually to protect the British provinces, to vindicate the authority of the British Government, and to punish the violators of treaties and the disturbers of public peace. "These operations," said the Governor-General, "will be steadily persevered in and vigorously prosecuted until the objects proposed to be accomplished are fully attained." The occupation of the Punjaub by the British forces was now to be considered as permanent until ample reparation for the insults offered to the British power had been given. That "ample reparation" included full indemnity for all the expenses incurred during the war, and such arrangements for the future government of the Punjaub as would give perfect security to the British Government against similar acts of perfidy and aggression.

The military operations against the Government and army of the Lahore had not been undertaken for the sake of extending territory or in any way aggrandising British rule. The Governor-General sincerely desired to see a strong Sikh Government re-established in the Punjaub, able to control its army and to protect its subjects. The sincerity of these professions was proved by the fact that no preparations for war had been made when the Lahore Government suddenly and without pretext invaded the British territory. That unprovoked aggression compelled the British Government to have recourse to arms, and to organise means of defensive warfare. The Governor-General proclaimed that "whatever might then befall Lahore the consequences could alone be attributed to the misconduct of its Government and its army." Although no extension

of territory was desired by the Government of India, the measures necessary for providing indemnity for the past and security for the future involved the retention by the British Government of a portion of country which had up to that time been under the government of the Lahore State. It was decided to determine the extent of territory which should be thus held by the conduct of the Durbar, and by consideration for the security of the British frontier. The Governor-General called upon all who were the well-wishers of the descendants of Runjeet Singh, and especially such chiefs as had not participated in the hostile proceedings against the British power, to act in concert with him in carrying into effect such arrangements as should maintain a Sikh Government at Lahore, capable of controlling its armies and protecting its subjects, and based upon principles which should provide for the future tranquillity of the Sikh States, should secure the British frontiers, and should prove to the whole world the moderation and justice of the paramount power in India. Not satisfied with appealing, he went on to threaten. "If this opportunity of rescuing the Sikh nation from military anarchy and misrule be neglected, and hostile opposition to the British army be resumed, the Government of India will make such other arrangements for the future government of the Punjaub as the interests of the British power may render just and expedient."

When, in the meantime, the news arrived at Lahore of the complete overthrow of the Sikh army, the Maharanee (or queen-mother), who was at the time, during the infancy of her son the Maharajah Duleep Singh, in enjoyment of the actual rule of the country, somewhat hastily consulted with her Durbar (or council), and with their approval urged upon the Rajah Gholab Singh to proceed immediately to the British camp, and entreat forgiveness in the name of the Lahore Government for the outrage which had been committed by the army, and at the same time endeavour to negotiate some arrangement by which the country could be saved from the utter ruin impending over it.

The Rajah first stipulated that the Durbar and chief officers of the army, as well as the members of the Punchayets, should sign a solemn declaration that they would abide by such terms as he might determine on with the British Government. This is said to have been immediately acceded to, and on the 15th of February the Rajah, accompanied by two of the foremost men of the young Maharajah's court, arrived in the British camp at Kursoor, with full credentials from the Maharajah. The permission of the young Maharajah was of course a legal fiction, the whole power at that time resting in the hands of the queen-mother. Sir Henry Hardinge, in his despatch dated "Camp, Kanha, Cuchwa, February 19th," stated that he received the Rajah as the representative of an offending Government, omitting the forms and ceremonies usually observed on the occasion of friendly meetings, and refusing to receive at the time the proffered "nuzzers" and complimentary offerings. He briefly explained to the Rajah and his colleagues that the offence which had been committed was most serious, and that the conduct of the chiefs and army was most unwarrantable; that this offence had been perpetrated without any shadow of a cause of quarrel with the British Government, and in the face of an existing treaty of amity and friendship, and that as all Asia had been a witness to the insult which had been offered, retributive justice demanded that the proceedings of the British Government should be of a character which would mark to the whole world that insult could not be offered to that Government and provinces invaded by a hostile army without signal punishment.

The terms demanded and conceded were the full surrender of the territory, hill and plain, lying between the Sutlej and Beas rivers, and the payment of one crore and a half of rupees as indemnity for the expenses of the war, the disbandment of the existing Sikh army, and its reorganisation on the system and regulations with regard to pay which obtained in the time of the late Maharajah Runjeet Singh, the arrangements for limiting the extent of the force to be

thenceforth employed to be determined on in communication with the British Government; and the surrender to us of all guns that had been pointed against British troops.

It was likewise determined that the young Maharajah Duleep Singh should meet the Governor General at Sutteeana, eleven miles from Lahore. On that day the Maharajah held an interview with Sir Henry Hardinge, who in his account of it says, "As on the occasion of Rajah Gholab Singh's visit, I omitted the usual salute to the Maharajah, and curtailed the other customary ceremonies on his arrival at my tent, causing it to be distinctly explained that until submission had been tendered by the Maharajah in person, he could not be received and recognised as a friendly prince.

"Submission was tendered by the minister and chiefs who accompanied the Maharajah, and the pardon of the British Government was requested on such conditions as I should dictate, in the most explicit terms; after which I stated that the conditions having been distinctly made known to the minister, Rajah Gholab Singh, and the chiefs accredited with him, it was unnecessary to discuss them in that place, and in the presence of the young Maharajah, who was of too tender an age to take part in such matters, and that as all the requirements of the British Government had been acquiesced in, and their fulfilment promised in the name of the Maharajah and Durbar, I should feel myself justified from that moment in treating the young Maharajah as a prince restored to the friendship of the British Government."

The Lahore Government ceded the hill country between the Beas and the Indus. The Maharajah agreed to pay fifty lacs of rupees on the ratification of the treaty, and was further bound never to take into his service any British subject, or the subject of any European or American State, without the consent of the British Government. It was decided also that inasmuch as it was fitting that Her Highness the Maharanee, the mother of the Maharajah Duleep Singh, should have a proper provision made for the maintenance of herself and her dependents, the sum of one lae and 50,000 rupees should be set apart annually, and should be at Her Highness's disposal. The treaty was signed on the 9th of March, 1846.

It was arranged that the provisions of this engagement should have effect during the minority of His Highness the Maharajah, and should cease and terminate on his attaining the full age of sixteen—that is to say, on the 1st of September, 1854—but it was at the same time decided that it should be competent to the Governor-General to cause the arrangement to cease at any time prior to the coming of age of His Highness at which the Governor-General and the Lahore Durbar should become of opinion that British interference was no longer necessary for the safety and good governance of the Punjaub.

It was proved, however, before many months had gone by, that British interference was in signally urgent request; and in consequence of the intrigues of the Maharance, who attempted to overthrow the regency, it was determined to remove her from Lahore. On the 28th of August, 1847, she was therefore sent off under military escort to the port of Shaihpoora, distant about 27 miles from Lahore, where she remained under surveillance. Before the close of 1847 war once more broke out in Scinde, and engagement after engagement having been fought, the final subjugation of the enemy was effected on the 20th of March, 1849, when the British troops having just taken the fort of Attoon, effected the passage of the Indus, and the Affghans fled precipitately through the Kyber Pass towards Caboul. It was then decided, as the only sure mode of protecting the State from the perpetual recurrence of unprovoked and wasting wars, to have resource to the entire subjugation of a people whom their own Government had long

been unable to control, and whom, as events had shown, no punishment deterred from violence, and no acts of friendship could conciliate to peace. "Wherefore"—so ran the proclamation—"the Governor-General of India has declared, and hereby proclaims, that the kingdom of the Punjaub is at an end, and that all the territories of the Maharajah Duleep Singh are now and henceforth a portion of the British Empire in India."

The Maharajah had not, of course, in any way been answerable for the disturbances which had thus finally closed the career of the Punjaub as a separate State, and it was announced in the proclamation that he would be treated with consideration and with honour. On the 29th of March, 1849, he being then eleven years old, a treaty was agreed to between him and the British Government, by which he ceded to them the Punjanb and the Koh-i-noor diamond in perpetuity, receiving in return a pension for life of not less than four lacs (£40,000) or more than five lacs of rupees, for the support of himself, his relations, and his servants. By the treaty, also, he was to retain the title of Maharajah (which is not secured to his issue), and to receive the portion of the pension allotted to him personally as long as he remains obedient to the British Government, and resides at such place as that Government shall appoint. At first he was allowed £12,000 of the pension, but in 1856, when he reached eighteen, it was raised to £15,000, and three years later, on attaining his majority according to English ideas, it was further increased to £25,000. Ten years later, in 1869, and after his marriage, the provision for his family in case of his death was fixed at £15,000 a year, his own income of £25,000 remaining the same. Long before this period, however, and while still a boy, the Maharajah, with the cordial approval of the Government, took up his residence in this countr where he was educated, and where, in course of time, he settled down as an English gentleman. He is now a county magistrate, and the patron of one living.

He lived for some time at Hatherop Castle, near Cirencester, which was purchased of the Hon. Ashley Ponsonby; but having disposed of this magnificent estate, he purchased Elveden Hall, near Thetford, where he took up his residence. His Highness is a keen sportsman, and takes great interest in most English pastimes. Especially is he fond of shooting, and it was principally to gratify this taste that Elveden and the land surrounding it were purchased, for it is one of the finest game estates in the kingdom. Since settling there the adjoining estate of Eriswell has been added, making altogether about 17,000 acres. The preserves are amongst the finest and largest in the kingdom, and the estate is literally overrun with game. As many as 12,000 head are annually shot, the total not including rabbits. Some go so far as to say that the Black Prince, as he is generally called in the neighbourhood, is too stringent a supporter of the game laws. If it be so, it in no way affects His Highness's popularity, which is very great. In 1871, a large party of guests, of whom the Prince of Wales was one, paid Elveden a visit, and on one day devoted to shooting more than 2,500 head of game fell to ten guns.

The old mansion attached to the estate when it was purchased by the Maharajah, and now pulled down, was interesting as the residence of Admiral Keppel, whose monument is to be seen in the parish church within the park. The admiral, who was the second son of William, second Earl of Albemarle, purchased the estate in 1770. During the sixteen years that the property was in his hands, the fame of the gallant admiral underwent a severe trial, only, however, to emerge the more brilliantly from its temporary obscurity. It will be remembered that in the action with the French off Ushant he failed to win a decisive victory, much to the disappointment of the nation. He blamed Sir Hugh Palliser, his second in command: Palliser retorted that his part of the fleet was disabled, and could not obey signals. After several most violent

debates in the House of Commons, of which Keppel and Palliser were both members, the former was ordered by the Government to be tried by court martial. The trial took place at Portsmonth (and contrary to custom, but in consequence of Keppel's ill-health, was held on shore); and, after thirty-two days' inquiry, the charges were declared malicious and ill-founded. London and Portsmouth were illuminated on the announcement of the result, and a mob in the metropolis sacked the houses of several members of the Government, and of other gentlemen who had been prominent in foreing on Keppel's trial. In 1782 he was made a viscount for his distinguished naval services, and dying in 1786, bequeathed the property to William Charles, the fourth carl. This nobleman sold it early in the present century to Mr. Newton, from whose hands it passed to the Maharajah Duleep Singh. Although interesting as an historic relic, the house had no architectural beauty, and was described as a flat and prison-like structure. In 1869 it was pulled down, and a very handsome Italian building, of red brick, with Aneaster stone dressings, erected from designs by a well-known architect-Mr. Norton. The exterior has little to distinguish it from an ordinary country seat. It is within that decoration has been expended with thoroughly Oriental magnificence. With the exception of Her Highness's boudoir, which is in the style of French Renaissance, the whole of the interior is finished with pure Indian ornament. To ensure accuracy and perfection in this work, the stores of the India Museum were ransacked, all authorities on the subject consulted, and drawings brought from Lahore and elsewhere. The result has been a scries of rooms entirely unique in style, whose gorgeous magnificence of colour is only equalled by their perfect harmony and artistic taste.

Thetford, near where the scat of the Maharajah is situated, was originally a place of great renown, even before the Roman Conquest, its Saxon name being Sitomagus, or the ford, whence its present appellation. When the invaders came, it was made into a fortified city, traces of the old ramparts and fortifications being yet observable, while many relies of the period, such as skeletons, old armour, and coins of the reign of Claudius Cæsar, Augustus. Trajan, and Antonius have been found in disintegrating the various tumuli in the neighbourhood. Under the Saxons, Thetford also flourished for some four hundred years, until the Danes, making one of their eustomary descents on the coast, destroyed the city in 787. Its history, as related by the quaint old chroniclers of the time, is eminently interesting, mixed up as it is with kings of Mercia, East Angles, fair princesses of Saxony, envious huntsmen, who, jealous of superiority in hawking, satisfy their rivalry in homicide, and all the romance of the dark ages summed up in a nutshell. In Domesday Book it is mentioned that Thetford was specially exempted from the payment of "Dancgelt," imposed over the kingdom generally by William the Conqueror, in consequence of the number of Danes who dwelt there. The place was always distinguished in eeclesiastical matters. Once it was a bishopric, although now within the Archdeaconry of Norwich. There are several fine old churches in the vicinity, and also the remains of the ancient monastery of the Dominieans or Black Friars, as well as those of that of St. Augustine. The celebrated Sir Thomas Howard, Earl of Surrey, was buried in the Priory Church. The Duke of Norfolk is lord of the manor; and "the customs" of all the manors of Thetford arc, as Blomefield describes, "that the eldest son is heir, the free tenants pay a year's free rent at every death, by way of relief, and there is but very little copyhold. There is no leet belonging to these manors, neither do they pay any leet fee." It formerly returned two members to Parliament, but lost the privilege on the passing of the Representation of the People's Act in 1867. Thetford is celebrated for a particular breed of rabbits called the "silvergrey," although their colour more nearly approaches to black. A large warren-occupying over

five thousand acres—where these are bred is called the "Carrons," and is situated on the lands of the old monastery of St. Sepulchre.

The Maharanee resided in this country until her death, which took place in 1863. She steadfastly refused all attempts at persuasion to become a convert to Christianity. It was at one time supposed that the Maharajah Duleep Singh would take for his wife the Princess Victoria of Coburg, but in 1864 he was married at the British Consulate at Alexandria to a young Protestant lady, a British subject, and a pupil in the school at Alexandria conducted by Miss Whately, the daughter of the famous archbishop. The Maharajah has always enjoyed the personal confidence and the friendship of the Royal Family, and was in the earlier days of his residence in England a very frequent visitor at Osborne and Windsor, and at times for lengthy periods took up his residence with the Royal Household. The intimacy is still maintained. Sandringham and Thetford are no great distance apart, and both His Highness the Maharajah and the Prince of Wales know how to exercise the graces of hospitality.

[The partrait prefixed to this memoir is copied, by fermission, from a photograph by Mr. Mayall, Regent Street.]

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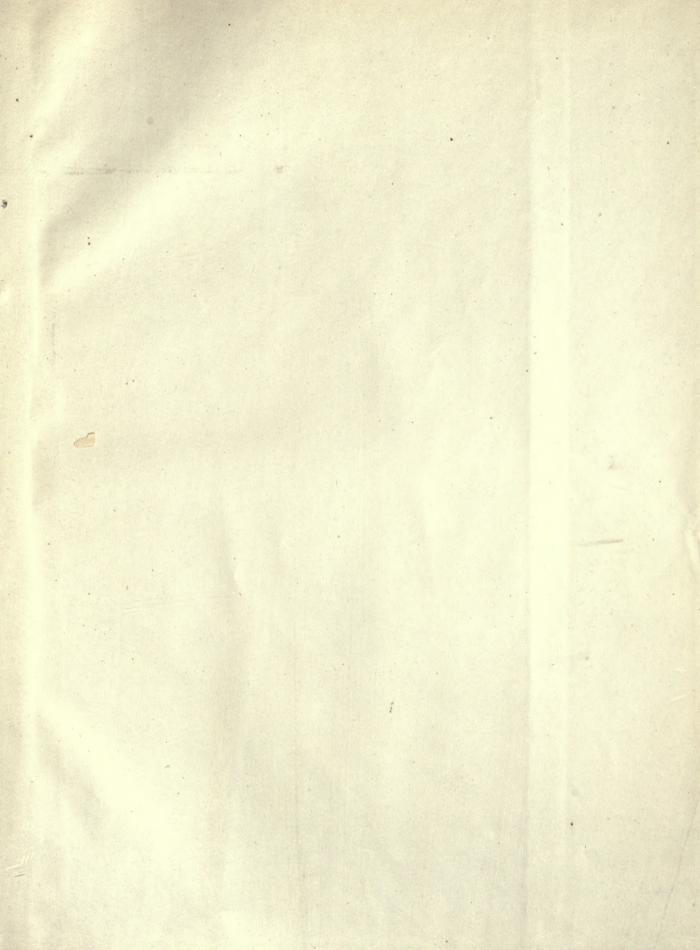
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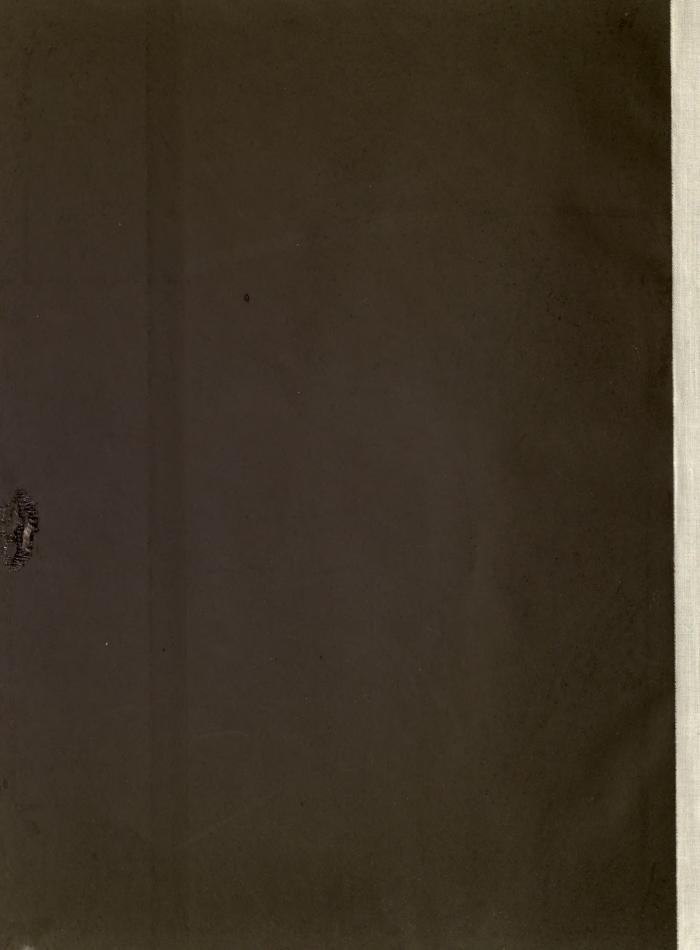
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